DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 217 691 FL 012 913

AUTHOR	deZeeuw, Peter; Kruah, Rexanna
TITLE	A Learner Directed Approach to Mano. A Handbook on Communication and Culture with Dialogs, Texts, Cultural Notes, Exercises, Drills and Instructions.
INSTITUTION	Michigan State Univ., East Lansing. African Studies Center.
SPONS AGENCY	Peace Corps, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	81
NOTE	379p.
LANGUAGE	English; Mano
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC16 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*African Languages; Cultural Awareness; Grammar; *Independent Study; *Instructional Materials; Pattern Drills (Language); Postsecondary Education; *Second Language Learning; Uncommonly Taught Languages; Vocabulary
IDENTIFIERS	*Liberia; *Mano; Peace Corps

ABSTRACT

This book for Peace Corps volunteers on learning Mano, one of the languages of Liberia, is divided into two sections. The first section consists of ten lessons and two review lessons, while the second section has eight lessons and a final review lesson. Each lesson is divided into four or five sections: (1) tests and dialogues, (2) grammatical and cultural notes, (3) vocabulary building, (4) pronunciation practice in the first three lessons, and (5) exercises. The introduction to the book provides information on the Mano language and its dialects, pronunciation variation, and English loan words. A final section of the book contains materials on individualized language learning and background information on Liberian languages. (Author/AMH)

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A Learner Directed Approach to

MANO

A HANDBOOK ON COMMUNICATION AND CULTURE WITH DIALOGS, TEXTS, CULTURAL NOTES, EXERCISES, DRILLS AND INSTRUCTIONS

by

Peter deZeeuw

and

Rexanna Kruah

FL012913

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ILLUSTRATED BY

ANABEL L. DWYER

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1981

INTRODUCTION

A. How to Use this Book

1. Organization of the Text

This book is divided into two sections. The first section consists of ten lessons (1-5 and 7-11) and two review lessons (6 and 12). The second section contains eight lessons and a final review lesson. Those especially interested in agriculture or medicine may want to take an early look at lessons 18 and 20, which contain a number of useful phrases on these topics.

After mastering the materials in the first section, the student should be at approximately the FSI 1 level, while the completion of the second part should take the student to the FSI 2 level.

Following the main body of the book is an appendix containing materials prepared by David Dwyer of Michigan State University on individualized language learning and background information on Liberian languages.

2. Planning the Lesson

Each lesson is divided into four or five sections: 1) texts and dialogues; 2) grammatical and cultural notes; 3) vocabulary building; 4) (in lessons 1-3) pronunciation practice; and 5) exercises.

Before you begin studying each lesson you should read through to see what is in it and make a plan of the order in which you will study the individual sections. There are several points to bear in mind when making up your lesson plan.

a. Make a written plan. At the beginning of the lesson discuss with your tutor what you would like to cover that day. Make sure you both understand the procedures you will be using.

b. Don't plan to do any one thing too long. Change gears every fifteen or twenty minutes. For instance, you might spend twenty minutes learning to say a dialogue. Then you might switch to an action drill or a picture drill that will increase your vocabulary. Then you might work on a new grammar point, a pronunciation exercise, or review some older material. Outside of class you may memorize the dialogue, in time to recite it from memory for your tutor at the beginning of the next class.

c. Plan your exercises so that they come in a sequence. You may need to learn the material in one exercise before you can properly do another which may come on an earlier page of the same lesson. This is why you should pay close attention to what is in each section when you are deciding on your lesson plan.

d. Don't forget to include periodic review of old material.

e. The optimum length of a lesson is about one hour. If you must have lessons longer than this, be sure to include a ten to fifteen minute break. The optimum amount of lesson time per week is four or five hours. You can learn with fewer hours, but your progress will be slower. But the most important thing is to meet regularly and be prepared.

B. The Mano Language

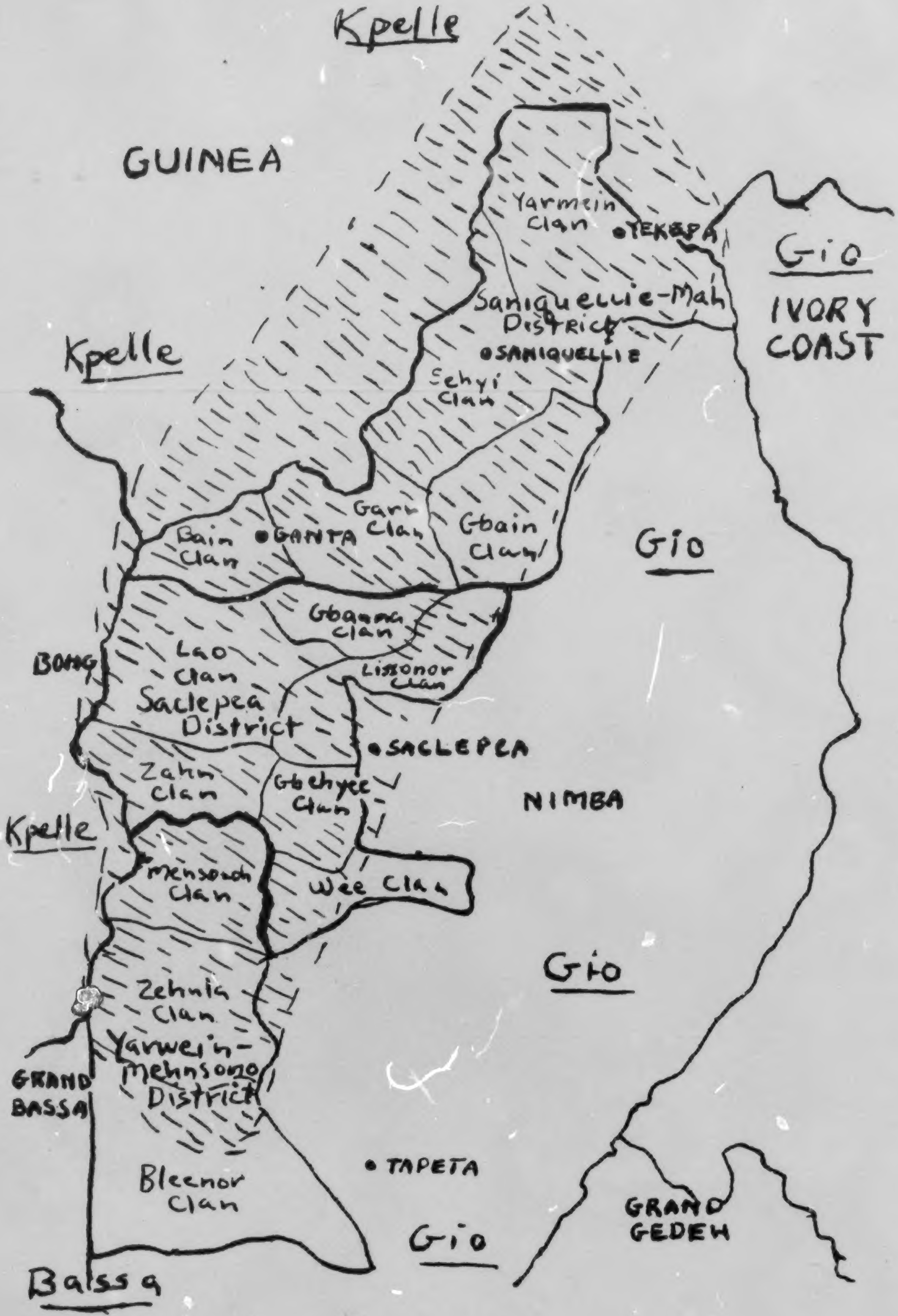
1. General Information

Mano is spoken primarily in Nimba county, with some speakers on the Bong county side of the St. John's river and a fairly large group across the border in Guinea.

It is most clearly related to the neighboring language of Gio, and more distantly related to Kpelle, Loma, Vai, and Mandingo.

The number of speakers has been estimated to be 40,000 in Liberia, although the population may have increased beyond that.

THE MANO SPEAKING AREA


Kpelle
GUINEA
Yarmein Clan
TEKEPA
Gio
Saniquellie-Mah District
SANIQUELLIE
IVORY COAST
Kpelle
Sehyi Clan
Garr Clan
Gbain Clan
Bain Clan
GANTA
Gio
Gbaana Clan
Lao Clan
BONG
Lissonor Clan
Saclepea District
SACLEPEA
Zahn Clan
Gbehyee Clan
NIMBA
Kpelle
Mensonoh Clan
Wee Clan
Gio
Zehnia Clan
Yarwein-Mehnsono District
GRAND BASSA
TAPETA
Bleenor Clan
GRAND GEDEH
Gio
Bassa

v

2. Mano Dialects

Although Mano is spoken by a relatively small number of speakers, it divides into a number of different dialect areas. These dialect areas correspond roughly with the clan boundaries - based on the political divisions in existence when the Liberians gained control of the Mano area.

There are about five major dialect areas, although the speech in every group of villages differs from the speech of neighboring villages.

The major dialect areas are, from north to south:

1) Yáá mɛi máá - spoken in the area around Yekepa,
2) the dialect spoken in Guinea,
3) láó máá - spoken in the area west of Sacklepie and as far north as Ganta,
4) Saklépíé máá - spoken around Saklepie,
5) yáá weĩ mɛ́sɔ́nɔ́ máá - south of Sacklepie to the southern boundary of the Mano region.

The material for this book was gathered mainly from the láó máá dialect, although there were informants from other regions as well. If a word or expression used in the book does not agree with your tutor's usage, you should learn the version used by your tutor and the other people around you.

There is no such thing as standard, literary Mano, as there is Standard English or French. You must learn the local dialect, but you must also be prepared to understand people from other areas.

3. Variation in Pronunciation

Sometimes a word may be pronounced several different ways by speakers of the same dialect. This variation is obviously not due to dialect differences, but is similar to the way a single speaker of English will vary between saying 'going' or 'goin'', 'isn't' or 'is not', etc.

While it is not possible to list all the variations in pronunciation, there are certain general tendencies which can be described.

1) a consonant in the middle of a word may be dropped:

gbínì	gbíì	'heavy'
gágà	gáà	'strong'

2) a may alternate with ɛ:

yábó	yɛ́bó	'work'

3) you may hear v as f, and z as s.

ɓaà vùò	ɓaà fùò	'good morning'
gɔ̃zɛ̀	gɔ̃sɛ̀	'male'

4) g and k may alternate with each other in the middle of words:

gágà	gákà	'strong; different'
ekéa	egéa	'this (one)'

5) the pronoun /e/ may be pronounced ɛ,
the pronoun /lɛ/ may also be pronounced ɛ.

4. English Loan Words

There are a large number of English loan words in Mano. Most of these are words denoting something that did not exist in traditional Mano culture - káà 'car', tɔ́ɔ̀ 'store', labiíà 'Liberian', etc. One will occasionally hear an English word used when there is an equivalent Mano word, particularly if the speaker has spent a lot of time in school. stáà kɛ 'to start' instead of the more usual nyɛ.

When you are learning new vocabulary and come across an English word, don't worry that you aren't learning the real Mano. Your tutor may be able to supply a 'real Mano' word for some commonly used English loan words, but if everyone uses the English word, that is the word you should use too.

There are certain predictable changes in the pronunciation of English loan words which make them fit into the Mano system of pronunciation:

	English	Mano
j → z	John	Zɔ̃́ɔ̃̀
ch → s	change	sɛ̃́sì
st → t	store	tɔ́ɔ̀
final r deleted	car	káà
r → l	April	éplè
vowels added to end of word	plate	plétì
[ai] → [aa]	July	zuláà
loss of final m,n with nasalization of preceding vowel	John	zɔ̃́ɔ̃̀
vowel harmony	April	éplè
	dollar	dálà

Loan words generally reproduce the stress pattern of the English word, so that if you simply pronounce the word with its ordinary stress it will sound all right.

Mano verbs may be formed by taking an English word and adding kɛ:

to change	sɛ̃́sì kɛ
to baptize	batáì kɛ

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Primary thanks must go to Rexanna Kruah of Yilah, Bong County, who provided most of the information on which this text is based. Other Mano speakers who were of help to me were Wose Maa, Saye Gbehli, and Nyaa Tonzia. Of course, any mistakes found in the book are to be blamed on the author.

I would also like to thank Elle Dulaney, Richard Kodl, and Debbie Armbruster for their assistance during my stay in Liberia, and for providing information on what Peace Corps Volunteers would like to be able to say.

David Dwyer, as well as heading the project of which this book is a part, has also provided materials on Liberian languages and language learning, which are included as an appendix to this book.

Finally, my thanks go to Kay Irish, who somehow managed to hold this whole project together, and to Marian deZeeuw, who played a large part in preparing the manuscript for this book.

This book was prepared in partial fulfillment of a contract with the United States Peace Corps for the upgrading of Liberian language learning materials.

A LEARNER DIRECTED APPROACH

TO MANO

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VI. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue 1 - Greetings

Sèé: Nyàá, ɓaà vùò.	Nyaa, good morning.
Nyàá: m̲̀m̲̀, mɓέε, ɓaà vùà?	Yes, my friend, good morning.
S: Ko mà i píé?	What news at your place?
N: à̲ lὲ lε sὲ.	It's fine.
S: Ko làapíé?	Goodbye.
N: ǹ̲m̲̀, ko làapíé.	Yes, goodbye.

Dialogue 2 - Greetings

Kɔ̀ɔ́: Yàá, i túó.	Yaa, good afternoon.
Yaa: m̲̀m̲̀, i túɔ́?	Yes, good afternoon.
K: m̲̀m̲̀.	Yes.
Y: Ko mà yí?	What news there?
K: Wɔ́ gɓεε wá yí.	Nothing bad there.

How to Study a Dialogue

Follow these steps when learning a dialogue:

1. The tutor reads the dialog three times. The students listen without looking at their books.
2. The tutor reads the dialogue again while the students follow in the book.
3. Go through the text line by line. First, the tutor says each line three or four times, then the students repeat it after him. Each line should be repeated no more than three or four times, until no more improvement is being made in pronunciation. (If students are having trouble with a line, the tutor should say it very slowly, word by word, then repeat it at normal speed. Then the students should try again.)
4. Do the same with each line of the dialogue.
5. The tutor goes through the whole dialogue, with the students repeating each line after him. Do this twc or three times.
6. The tutor takes the role of the first character, and a student responds with the lines of the second character. After every student has taken the second role, the instructor takes the second role while the students take the first role. Finally, students are assigned to both parts of the dialogue. Continue until everyone has taken both parts several times.
7. Tape the dialogue for study outside of class. Memorize it and recite it at the beginning of the next class period.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Greetings - Notes and Additional Phrases

1. Notes

ɓaà vùò is used when greeting someone in the morning for the first time. If you have greeted the person earlier in the day, or if it is already afternoon, use i túó.

When one person is sitting or standing still, and another person approaches, usually the person who is approaching will speak first.

It is considered impolite to pass someone without greeting them. Even if you have already seen someone several times that day, you can at least call their name. A good response when someone calls your name is m̀m̀, 'yes'.

2. Additional Greeting Phrases

Learn these greetings, which are used when addressing more than one person:

Kaà vùò.	Good morning.
m̀m̀, kaà vùà?	Yes, good morning.
Ka túó.	Good afternoon.
m̀m̀, ka túá?	Yes, good afternoon.

B. The Mano Alphabet

The sounds of Mano are represented by the following alphabet. Have your tutor read the examples for each letter and listen carefully for differences from similar English sounds. Note that vowel signs represent sounds different from the ones they do in English spelling and are pronounced more like those used for Italian or Spanish. You should also note several double letter combinations - kp, gb, and ny - which nevertheless represent single sounds.

	Examples	Comments
/a/	à - his, hers làà - knife dálà - dollar	like /a/ in 'father', 'spa', 'mama'.
/b/	bu - gun bólò - banana bɔ̀á - shoes	
/ɓ/	ɓáá - sheep ɓu - rice ɓɛ̀lɛ̀ - vine, rope	Air is drawn from the mouth just before lips are opened for a /b/ sound, causing air to enter mouth when sound is made.
/d/	dà - to drop, fall dìì - cow dɔmì - chief	
/e/	lé - mouth gèe - to say, tell sélè - 20 cents (shilling)	This sound is halfway between the /ay/ of 'hay', 'lay', and the /ee/ of 'feet', 'heed'. The tongue does not move to an /ee/ sound as it does in the pronunciation of the /ay/ vowel.
/ɛ/	lɛ̀ - yard, farm, place kɛ̀lɛ̀ - palm of the hand nɛí - ten cents	Starts at about the same place as the /ay/ of 'hay', 'day', but the tongue does not move. Note: /nɛi/ rhymes with English 'nay'.
/f/	fãã - wind félé - bracelet nɛ́fú - child	

/g/	gɔ̃ - man gɛ̀lɛ̀ - stone gáná - root	
/gb/	gbɔɔ - pot tɛgbɛ - brain gbàaò - no	Made by placing back of tongue against the roof of the mouth for a /g/, then closing lips for a /b/. Inhale slightly and say the /g/ and /b/ at the same time. At first you may confuse this with /ɓ/.
/i/	mi - person yílí - tree, stem tíé - fire, a light	Like /ee/ in 'feet', 'beet', but tongue is steady throughout.
/k/	kɔ̀ - hand, arm yààka - three kiìkɛì - school	
/kp/	kpã̀ã́ - fish lɛkpɛ́í - daytime kpuò - knee	Like /gb/. Say a /k/ and a /p/ at the same time, while inhaling slightly.
/l/	ló - to go lúó - time, a day púlú - white	At the beginnings of words /l/ will sometimes sound more like a /d/ said with indrawn breath.
/m/	màa - grandmother míná - spoon pòmà - funnel	
/n/	nɛ́nɛ́ - cold (noun) nu - to come pɛ́nɛɛ - today	

/ny/	nyu - nose nyɔ́nɔ́ - oil nyàà - egg	Like the Spanish /ñ/ in 'cañon' (canyon). Hold the tongue as for /sh/ or /zh/, then place it against the roof of the mouth and say an /n/.
/ŋ/	táŋálá - chair tèŋè - pigeon siɛ́ŋle - stars	Like the /ng/ in 'sing', 'long'. Hold the tongue in the place for a /g/, but make the sound nasal.
/o/	tóó - ear bò - goat zolc - red	Hold the tongue halfway between the positions of /oo/ in 'spoon' and /o/ in 'phone'. Tongue and lips should not move.
/ɔ/	fɔ̃́ - five cents tɔ̀ɔ̀ - chicken dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́ - cold (adj.)	Hold tongue at same place as the beginning of /o/ in 'foe', 'tone', but do not move tongue or lips.
/p/	pɛ - thing plétì - plate Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà - Ganta (Gompa)	
/s/	sìi - spider súò - hot pepper sɛ̃́sì - change (money)	
/t/	tóṹ - palm tree tɔ̀ɔ̀ - chicken tíètíè - quickly	
/u/	gùlù - hole suú - grass, weeds ɓu - rice	Like /oo/ in 'moon', 'spoon', but lips and tongue do not move.

/v/ vùò - to wake up
vɔ - to send
yèvũa - loom

/w/ wìì - animal, meat
wɛ́lɛ́ - seed, nut
wí - to shatter

/y/ yɔ - liquor
yíí - water
yalá - yesterday

/z/ zi - road
zoé - the middle
zúlú - to bathe

SPECIAL SYMBOLS

	Examples	Comments
/´/	tóó - ear nɛ́ - child kpáá - bridge	High tone - the pitch of the voice is raised.
	kaa - crab gɔ̃ - man (male) mɛnɛ - moon	Mid tone - the vowel is unmarked. The pitch of the voice is between high and low.
/`/	bò - goat làà - knife kɛ̀lɛ̀ - palm of the hand	Low tone - the pitch of the voice is low.

/˜/	gã̀ - foot kpã̀ã́ - fish dèĩ́ - snail	Placed over nasalized vowel. Say /mm/ and feel the air coming through your nose. Then say /ah/, but keep the air coming through your nose. You will be saying /ãã/.

Note: Throughout this book, capital letters are indicated by /_/ when the letter to be capitalized has a tone marker, or is represented in phonetic script.

Examples:	ɓaà vùò.	Good morning.
	m̀m̀.	Yes.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. Useful Phrases - Speaking and Understanding

Mɛ́ɛ wɔ̃́ lɛ́ ba gèe (bɛ)?	What did you say?
ḿm̀ ma.	I understand.
m̀ḿ ma?	I don't understand.
à gèe zeĭ́!	Say it again.
à gèe dɔ́ɔ́lɔ!	Talk softer/slower.
à gèe gágà!	Talk louder.
à gèe tíètíè!	Talk faster.
à gèe dɔ́ɔ́lɔ kɛ m ma.	Talk slower so I can understand.

How to Memorize Phrases

Individual phrases or words can be learned with these steps:

1. Listen to your tutor pronounce the phrase several times.
2. Repeat it after your tutor several times.
3. Write the phrase on a slip of paper. You may want to try this as a dictation exercise. That is, your tutor reads the phrase while you write it on the paper. Then you can check your version against that in the book.
4. Write the English equivalent on the other side.
5. Study the phrases outside of class by looking at the Mano side of your slips and thinking of the English equivalent, then turning the card over to check. Set aside the cards that you have learned. Continue going through the pile until you know the meaning of each item.
6. Repeat step 5, going from English to Mano.

More Useful Phrases

The following phrases can be used by your tutor in giving directions during action drills.

I tóó dɔ!	Listen!
Lɛ sɛ̀.	Good, that's good.
m̲̀m̲̀.	Yes.
Gbàaò.	No.

Listen while your tutor repeats each one four or five times, then repeat after him.

B. Action Drills

The following exercises will teach you how to respond to some commands in Mano. You should learn the responses without looking in the book. Your tutor should not use English in explaining the commands, and you should avoid thinking of the English meanings.

Follow these steps in learning action drills:

1. Your tutor repeats the first phrase three times, while performing the appropriate action.
2. Then he gives the command and the students respond with the action.
3. Repeat step 2 four or five times.
4. When you have learned the first command, learn the second command in the same way.
5. Then your tutor should repeat the two commands in different orders until you have responded correctly three or four times to each.
6. Learn the rest of the commands in the same way.
7. After you learn each new command, review all those learned so far.

1. Stand up, Sit down

In this drill, it will be necessary to learn the commands in pairs: learn the first two, then the next two, then the last two. After learning each pair, review all the commands learned so far, in as many different orders as possible.

a.	Wɛlɛ í dɔ!	Stand up.
	Yȁ tá̀ȁ!	Sit down.
b.	Nu zèe!	Come here.
	ló b̂à sìyɛ̀ mɔ̀!	Go to your seat.
c.	Ló pɛ́lɛi zoé!	Go outside.
	Nu kɛì! (Nu kaì!)	Come inside.

2. Raise Your Hand

Learn these commands in the same way as those in the first Action Drill. These commands also come in pairs.

a.	I kɔ̂ sí lɛí!	Raise your hand.
	à ló tá̀ȁ!	Lower it. or
	I kɔ̀ ló tá̀ȁ!	Lower your hand.
b.	b̂a kii sí tá̀ȁ!	Pick up your book.
	à dà tá̀ȁ!	Put it down. or
	b̂à kii dà tá̀ȁ!	Put your book down.
c.	b̂à kiilɛ́ɛ́ sí tá̀ȁ!	Pick up your paper.
d.	b̂à kiigbɛ̏ápɛ sí tá̀ȁ!	Pick up your pencil.

After you learn these, review all the commands learned so far.

3. Point to

a. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ ɓà kii mɔ̀!	Point to your book.
b. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ ɓà kiilɛ́ɛ́ mɔ̀!	Point to your paper.
c. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ i wűkele mɔ̀!	Point to your head.
d. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ i kɔ̀ mɔ̀!	Point to your hand.
e. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ i gā̀ mɔ̀!	Point to your foot.
f. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ i nyiɛ́wɛ́lɛ́ mɔ̀!	Point to your eyes.
g. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ i lé mɔ̀!	Point to your mouth.
h. I kɔ̀ zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ i tóó mɔ̀!	Point to your ear.

The difference between ɓà and i, both meaning 'your', will be explained in Lessons 2 and 3.

IV. PRONUNCIATION EXERCISES

A. How to Run Sound Discrimination Drills

These drills are not intended to teach vocabulary. Do not try to learn the meaning of the words used in them. Each drill will teach you to hear the difference between two sounds. Column I contains words with the first sound. Across from each word in Column I is a similar sounding word in Column II.

Follow these steps in running the drill:

1. After you are sure that your tutor understands which words are to be used, have him read each pair while you look at them in the book. He should read them with a regular rhythm, like "tick-tock".
2. Listen to him read through the pairs again, but do not look at the book.
3. Then have him read the pairs again in the opposite order.
4. You may need to listen to some pairs more than three times. When you think you have mastered the distinctions, test yourself in the following manner.

Test for Sound Discrimination

1. Write down the two sounds you are learning to discriminate between.
2. Have your tutor read one word from either side.
3. Point to the letter contained in the word he has read.
4. If your answer is incorrect, your tutor should read both words of the pair, and then test you again with the single word.
5. Repeat steps 2-4 with the other words from the exercise.
6. When you can identify the correct sound almost every time, move on to the next drill.

B. Vowels

Pay careful attention to how the Mano vowels really sound. The vowel /i/ sounds like English /ee/, /u/ like English /oo/, and /a/ like English

/ah/. But the other Mano vowels do not sound exactly like any English sounds.

The vowel /ɛ/ begins in the same place as English /ey/. Unlike English, Mano vowels are pronounced without any tongue movement, so /ɛ/ begins and ends with the tongue in the same place.

The vowel /e/ is pronounced at a height halfway between /i/ and /ɛ/.

The most common mistakes are to hear /e/ as /i/, and /ɛ/ as /e/.

The vowels /o/ and /ɔ/ are pronounced with the tongue at the same height as for /e/ and /ɛ/, respectively.

1. i-e Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	zi	road	ze	beans
b.	yí	sleep (noun)	yè	to give birth to
c.	gí	outside of belly	gé	inside cf belly
d.	bí	to shine	ɓe	bundle, bunch
e.	lí	to grow well	lé	mouth
f.	dìì	cow	lee	woman
g.	wìì	animal, meat	wéé	word, speech
h.	yílí	tree	yèlè	to tie

2. e-ɛ Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	ze	beans	zɛ	to kill
b.	kpee	bell	gbɛɛ	any, none
c.	yè	to give birth to	yɛ́	to break
d.	lee	woman	lɛ́ɛ́	leaf
e.	gele	to burn	gɛ̀lɛ̀	rock, stone
f.	lé	mouth	lɛ̀	yard, place
g.	gèe	to say, tell	gɛ̀ɛ̀	spirit
h.	gbeĩ	far	ɓɛ́ĩ́	a little bit

3. ɛ-a Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	lɛ̀	yard, place	là	on
b.	gɛ̃̀	to see	gã̀	foot, leg
c.	gbɛɛ	any, none	gbaa	then
d.	sɛ́lɛ́	region, country	sála	sacrifice
e.	wɛ̀ɛ́	a (fresh) cold	wàa	to hurt, be painful
f.	dɛɛ	new	dàa	father
g.	ɓɛɛ	fruit	ɓáá	sheep

4. ɔ-a Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	ɓɔ	to reach, arrive at	ɓa	a sore
b.	ɓɔ́ɔ́	ring	ɓáá	sheep
c.	kɔɔ	dry (adj.)	kaa	crab
d.	gbɔɔ	pot	gbaa	then, at that time
e.	tɔ̃ɔ̃	hill	tãã	ripe
f.	dɔ	to know; to stand	dà	to drop
g.	gɔ̃	man (male)	gã̀	foot, leg
h.	lɔ́ɔ́	market, week	làà	knife

5. ɔ-o Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	ɓɔ̀	pig	ɓò	goat
b.	tɔ̀ɔ̀	chicken	tòò	tomorrow
c.	lɔ́	to buy	ló	to go
d.	ɓɔ	to reach, arrive at	ɓo	to pick, remove
e.	gɔ	leopard	gó	to come from
f.	fɔ́lɔ	hoe	fónó	salary, payment
g.	ɓɔ̀ɔ́	bag	ɓòo	vegetables
h.	sɔe	church	zoé	middle, center

6. o-u Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	ɓo	to pick, remove	ɓu	rice
b.	gòlò	to sweep	gùlù	hole
c.	tóó	ear	túú	horn (musical)
d.	zolo	red	zúlú	to bathe
e.	sòo	horse	suú	grass, weeds
f.	gbòo	dirt	kpuú	short
g.	zòlo	red deer	zulu	driver ants
h.	zoé	center, middle	yúé	ashes

B. Level Tones

Mano tones may be difficult for Americans to distinguish at first, in particular the difference between mid and low tone. Don't expect to master them the first time you do the drills. However, learning tones is important, so you should return to these drills, as well as other tone exercises, until you know the tones.

1. High Tone - Low Tone

	Column I		Column II	
a.	kɛ́lɛ́	head-tie	kɛ̀lɛ̀	palm of the hand
b.	nɛ́	child	nɛ̀	a lie
c.	kpáá	bridge, raft	kpàà	to cook
d.	tóó	ear	tòò	tomorrow
e.	pá	to touch	pà	place, home
f.	gbã́ã́	roof	gbàà	black deer
g.	zóó	wise man	zò	heart
h.	ɓɔ́ɔ́	ring	ɓɔ̀	pig

2. High Tone - Mid Tone

	Column I		Column II	
a.	ɓé	animal horn	ɓe	crazy, stupid
b.	wɛ́lɛ́	seed, nut	wɛlɛ	face
c.	káá	to pour	kaa	crab
d.	zúlú	to bathe	zulu	driver ants
e.	gbã́ã́	roof	gbãã	branch
f.	kɛ́lɛ́	head tie	kele	shell, scales
g.	kpáá	bridge, raft	gbaa	then
h.	ɓɔ́ɔ́	ring	ɓɔ	to reach, arrive at

3. Mid Tone - Low Tone

The pitch interval between mid and low tone is small compared to that between high and mid tone. Try to do as well as you can, but don't be discouraged if you have trouble hearing the difference at first. You will have more opportunities to learn this distinction later on.

	Column I		Column II	
a.	mɛnɛ	moon	mɛ̀nɛ̀	tsetse fly
b.	ɓɔ	to reach, arrive at	ɓɔ̀	pig
c.	gɛ̃	pumpkin	gɛ̃̀	to see
d.	gbãã	branch	gbàà	black deer
e.	ɓo	to pick, remove	ɓò	goat
f.	gbaa	then	kpàà	to cook
g.	kele	shell, bark	kɛ̀lɛ̀	palm of the hand

4. High - Mid - Low

Test yourself on all three tones by having your tutor read words randomly from the three drills.

V. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Use What You Learn

Using the phrases you have learned, greet the people you meet in Mano. Do this as often as possible. The more you use the Mano you know, the better you will learn it. It is important to get into the habit of using Mano as often as possible, because no one will speak to you in Mano if you don't use Mano with them. But if you try to use Mano, people are more likely to answer you in Mano.

B. Hints for Taping

A cassette recorder will help you greatly in your study of Mano. Use it to tape dialogues, exercises, and stories to listen to outside of class. Repeated exposure to material you have already studied will help you greatly in learning it thoroughly. Even listening to your tapes while doing something else will help train your ear to the sound of Mano.

When you tape something, label it on the tape. This will help you to locate particular exercises when replaying the tape. When taping a dialogue or drill, make sure to include a pause after each line long enough to allow you to repeat or respond when listening. Also, you will save time by rehearsing with your tutor exactly what you want taped before you try to tape it.

It will be helpful to tape all the sound discrimination drills on a separate tape. All of them together should use up about a half hour of tape. Placing them all on the same tape will make it easier to review pronunciation.

C. Dictation

1. How to do a Dictation Exercise

The purpose of the dictation exercises is to test your listening ability to hear Mano sounds. An analysis of your mistakes will show you what areas you should concentrate on in review.

Follow these steps in doing dictation:

1. Your tutor reads the word or sentence at normal speed, as many as three times, pausing between readings to allow you to write down what you think you heard.
2. Look at the word or sentence and correct your mistakes. Make a note of your mistakes somewhere. For instance, if you hear nɛ as ne, write down "e for ɛ".
3. When you have completed the entire dictation, look to see what your most common errors were. These are the areas you should review most thoroughly.

2. Dictation Exercises

On this first dictation, do not attempt to write the whole word. Instead, as your tutor reads each sentence, write down the vowel found in the first word of the sentence. When you have done this, go through again, writing down the tone of the word. When listening for the tone, it will be very useful to compare it with the tone of the second word, which will always be the same (mid tone).

a.	Tóó lɛ.	It's an ear.
b.	Lɛ́ɛ́ lɛ.	It's a leaf.
c.	Lee lɛ.	It's a woman.
d.	Gbáá lɛ.	It's a roof.
e.	Zò lɛ.	It's a heart.
f.	Nyu lɛ.	It's a nose.
g.	ɓɔ̀ lɛ.	It's a pig.
h.	ɓò lɛ.	It's a goat.

VI. VOCABULARY LIST

Verbs

dà tã́ã̀...put down (on the ground)
gèe...to say
ló...to go
ma...to hear; to understand
nu...to come
sí tã́ã̀...pick up (from the ground)
yà tã́ã̀...to sit down
zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀...to show
kɔ̀ zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ _X_ mɔ̀...point to _X_

Nouns

gã̀...foot, leg
kii...book
kiilɛ́ɛ́...paper
kiigbɛ̃̀ã́pɛ...pen, pencil
kɔ̃̀...hand, arm
lé...mouth
nyiɛ́, nyiɛ́wɛ́lɛ́...eye(s)
sìyɛ̀...seat, chair
tóó...ear(s)
wṹkele...head

Locations

kaì (kɛì)...in the house
lɛí...the sky
pɛ́lɛi zoé...outside
tã́ã̀...the ground

Phrases

Mɛ́ɛ wɔ̃́ lɛ́ ɓa gèe ɓɛ̂?...What did you say?
à̲ gèe zeí...Say it again.
à̲ gèe dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́...Say it softer/slower.
à̲ gèe gágà...Say it louder.
à̲ gèe tíètíè...Say it faster.
à̲ gèe dɔ́ɔ́l[illegible]ɛ m ma...Say it slower so I can understand.
m̲̂m ma...I understand.
m̲̀ḿ ma?...I don't understand. (What's that?)
I tɔ́ɔ́ dɔ!...Listen!
Lɛ sɛ̀...Good. That's good.
m̲̀m̀...yes
gbàaò...no
b̲aà vùò...Good morning.
Kaà vùò...Good morning (addressing more than one person).
I tûó...Good afternoon.
Ka túó...Good afternoon (addressing more than one person).

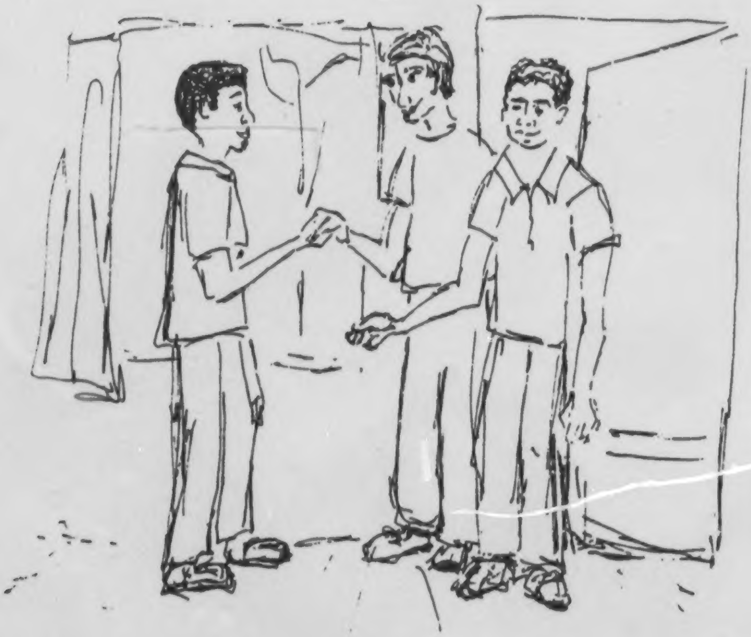
Phrases (cont.)

Ko mà?...What news?

à lὲ lɛ sὲ...It's fine.

Wɔ̃́ gbɛɛ wá yí...No bad news here.

LESSON TWO



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VI. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXT

Dialogue - Meeting a Friend

Pèé: Kpɔ́kpɔ́!	Hello!
Yàá: Dɛī lɛ?	Who is it?
P: Pèé lɛ.	It's Paye.
Y: Pèé,nu kɛì.	Come in.
	(Paye and Walter enter.)
Y: Ka sɛ́nɛ́ o.	Welcome.
	(Paye and Yaa shake hands.)
Y: ɓaà vùò	Good morning.
P: mm, ɓaà vùà? M ɓɛ́ɛ lɛ.	Yes, good morning. This is my friend.
Y: Ko wéà kɛ!	Let's shake hands!
	(Yaa and Walter shake hands.)
Y: Ì yùá.	Hello.
Walter: m̀m̀, ì yùá.	Yes, hello.

Follow the same steps in learning this dialogue as the ones given in Lesson 1.

1. Listen to the tutor without looking (several times).
2. Listen and follow along in the book.
3. Listen and repeat one line at a time.
4. Repeat whole dialogue line by line.
5. Tutor takes first part, student second part.
6. Students take both parts. Go around class until everyone has done each part.
7. Memorize outside of class and recite during next class period.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Notes on Handshakes and Meeting People

When learning this dialogue, make sure you and your tutor practice the handshake. The non-verbal aspects of greeting someone are as important as what is said. You should be able to produce a finger snap while shaking hands by this point. If you can't now, you will be able to with practice.

You should always shake hands when meeting someone for the first time. If you are visiting another place, the host will usually welcome you first. Then nothing more is said until the handshake. After shaking hands, the host will say ì yùá, 'hello'. Then the visitor responds.

A handshake usually follows a greeting, but it is not always expected. The best way to learn when to shake hands and when not to is by observation.

B. More Greetings - How to Learn Sentence-Response Pairs

The techniques given here are useful for learning any sentence pairs where the second sentence is a response to the first. These pairs can be a question and an answer, or a statement or greeting and the proper response.

Follow these steps in learning sentence-response pairs:

1. Learn to pronounce the response. Listen to your tutor model the phrase several times, then repeat after him until you can say it well.
2. Listen while your tutor repeats the first sentence several times.
3. When your tutor gives the first sentence, give the response. Repeat this several times.
4. Learn the first sentence.
5. One learner gives the first sentence. Another student or the tutor responds. Repeat several times.
6. If there is more than one possible response, practice each one.
7. Learn the next cycle the same way.

8. After learning each cycle, the tutor should ask the questions learned so far in different orders. If students hesitate in answering one of them, practice this sequence again.

9. After learning a group of cycles, the students should take turns asking each other the questions and giving responses.

1. Welcoming Phrases

Greeting:	I sɛ́nɛ́.	Welcome.
Response:	m̀m̀.	Yes.
Greeting:	Ka sɛ́nɛ́.	Welcome (used when addressing more than one person).
Response:	m̀m̀.	
Greeting:	ì yùá.	Hello. (used to greet a stranger or someone you haven't seen in a long time)
Response:	ì yùá.	
Greeting:	Ko wéà kɛ.	Let's shake hands.
Response:	(shake hands).	

2. What News?

Greeting:	Ko mà?	What news?
Responses:	Gbàaò.	Nothing bad.
	à lɛ̀ lɛ sɛ̀.	It's fine.
	Lɛ sɛ̀ o.	It's fine.
Greeting:	Ko mà i píé kaì?	What news at your house?
Responses:	same as above.	
Greeting:	Ko mà yí?	What news there?
Response:	Wɔ̃́ gbɛɛ wá yí.	No bad news there.
Greeting:	Ko mà zèe?	What news here?
Response:	Wɔ̃́ gbɛɛ wá zèe.	No bad news here.

C. How to do Repetition Drills

These drills are used to learn a specific grammatical structure. The procedure is as follows:

1. The tutor reads the first line.
2. The student listens, then repeats, without looking at the book.
3. If the tutor is dissatisfied with the first attempt, he says the line again for the student to repeat.
4. Then he moves on to the next line. It is not necessary to memorize each line, only to repeat it correctly and fluently.

D. How to do Substitution Drills

Substitution drills are for practicing vocabulary already learned or for introducing new vocabulary. The drill begins with a model sentence, which the tutor reads and the student repeats, without looking at the book. Then the tutor will say a single word. The student replaces one word in the model sentence with this new word and says the new sentence. The tutor may model this sentence for the student to repeat again, if it was not satisfactory on the first try.

The following shows how a substitution drill works, using an English example:

Teacher: I am going home.
Student: I am going home.
Teacher: to the store
Student: I am going to the store.
Teacher: to town
Student: I am going to town.

In doing any kind of drill, it is better if the student does not look at the written material, as one of the major purposes of drills is to strengthen the ability to understand and deal with spoken material. So remember, give your book to your tutor when doing drills. He needs it and you don't. If you have to look at pictures in the book, cover the rest of the page.

Also, for the drill to be effective, the students should know the meaning of all of the words being drilled.

E. Identifying Sentences

1. It's a X.

The simplest way of identifying something in Mano is with the pattern - '_X_ lɛ' or '_X_ lɛ́ɛ'. The blanks can be filled with any noun. This is equivalent to the English, 'It is a _X_.' or 'This is a _X_.' Whether you use lɛ or lɛ́ɛ does not seem to make a difference in the meaning, although sentences with lɛ́ɛ may be more emphatic.

Repetition Drill

Kii lɛ.	Kii lɛ́ɛ.	It's a book.
Kiilɛ́ɛ́ lɛ.	Kiilɛ́ɛ́ lɛ́ɛ.	It's paper.
Tóó lɛ.	Tóó lɛ́ɛ.	It's an ear.
Lé lɛ.	Lé lɛ́ɛ.	It's a mouth.

2. Negative Sentences

The negative form of the identifying sentence is formed by replacing lɛ with wá:

_X_ wá.	It's not _X_.

Repetition Drill

Kii wá.	It's not a book.
Kiilɛ́ɛ́ wá.	It's not paper.
Tóó wá.	It's not an ear.
Lé wá.	It's not a mouth.

3. Question and Answer

You will review the nouns you learned in Lesson One with this exercise. First your tutor will point to the things which are named below and identify them with the sentence frame '_X_ lɛ.' You will repeat each sentence after him. Then he will point to the same objects and ask the question, Mɛ́ e ɓɛ?, 'What is it?'. You will reply with the correct answer.

Example:	Teacher (pointing to foot): Mɛ́ e ɓɛ?	What is it?
	Student: Gȁ lɛ.	It's a foot.

Use:	kɔ̀	hand
	lé	mouth
	nyiɛ́	eye
	tóó	ear.

F. Demonstrative Sentences

These are the demonstratives used in Mano. They can be either singular or plural. The word following the comma represents an alternate pronunciation.

e kéa, ɛ kéɛ	'this (one)'
e dĩkéa, ɛ dĩkéɛ	'that (one)' - nearby
e yía, ɛ yíɛ	'that (one)' - not in sight

They are used in sentences like this:

___ lɛ́ e kéa.	'This is a ___.'
___ gɛ̏ e kéa.	'This is a ___.' (no difference in meaning)
___ lɛ́ e dĩkéa.	'That is a ___.' (when object is in sight)
___ lɛ́ e yía.	'That is a ___.' (when object is out of sight)

1. Repetition Drill

Sĩyɛ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a seat.
Kii lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a book.
Gȁ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a foot.
I kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is your hand.
N wṹkele lɛ́ e kéa.	This is my head.

2. Substitution Drill

Using the same nouns, practice saying the other demonstrative sentences.

Teacher:	Sìyɛ̀ lɛ́ e dǐkéa.	That is a chair.
Student:	repeat	
Teacher:	kii	book
Student:	Kii lɛ́ e dǐkéa.	That is a book.

Use: gã̋

i kɔ̀

n wũkele

Then, with the same nouns, practice '___ lɛ́ e yǐa.'

3. Negatives

The negative forms of these expressions are:

___ wá e kéa.	'This is not a ___.'
___ wá e dǐkéa.	'That (in sight) is not a ___.'
___wá e yǐa.	'That (out of sight) is not a ___.'

Repetition Drill

kiigbɛ̌̀ápɛ wá e kéa.	This is not a pencil.
kiilɛ́ɛ́ wá e kéa.	This is not paper
Kii wá e kéa.	This is not a book.
Tóó wá e kéa.	This is not an ear.

Substitution Drill

Using the same nouns, practice the forms '___wá e dǐkéa.' and '_ wá e yǐa.' as in the Substitution Drill above.

4. Question and Answer

Practice these questions:

Mɛ́ e ké ɓɛ?	What is this?
Mɛ́ e dǐké ɓɛ?	What is that? (in sight)
Mɛ́ e yí ɓɛ?	What is that? (out of sight)

Now the tutor will point to the classroom objects which the student has learned to name, asking one of the questions. The students will respond with the appropriate statement.

Teacher (pointing to paper):

Mɛ́ e ké ɓɛ?	What is this?
Student: Kiilɛ́ɛ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is paper.

Continue with the different forms of questions and answers until you have been able to name everything you have learned.

G. Possession - Body Parts and Family Members

In Mano, there are two different sets of possessive pronouns. In this exercise you will learn the inalienable set - the set used with things that belong to a person by their nature and cannot be bought or sold. This includes parts of the body and family members. The alienable pronouns will be introduced in Lesson 3.

The possessive pronoun is present even when the possessor is indicated by a full noun:

M ɓɛ́ɛ à kɔ̀ lɛ.	It's my friend's hand. (lit., It's my friend's his hand.)
Dɛì à kɔ̀ lɛ́ɛ?	Whose hand is it? (lit., Whose his hand is it?)

Notice that Mano distinguishes between 'you', referring to a single person, and 'you', referring to more than one. This is similar to 'tu' and 'vous' in French, and 'thou' and 'you' in Middle English.

Mano also has two different words for 'we' - an inclusive 'we' when the hearer is included in the group, and an exclusive 'we' when the hearer is not part of the group being referred to. If it is not important whether the hearer is being referred to or not, the exclusive 'we' is usually used.

The word for 'my' is pronounced /ŋ/ before words starting in /k/, /g/, /kp/, and /gb/; /m/ before /p/, /b/, /ɓ/, and /m/; /ny/ before /ny; and /n/ before /t/, /d/, and /n/. This is discussed further in Lesson 3.

1. Repetition Drill

The tutor should say each sentence several times; then have the students repeat it after him.

ŋ kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is my hand.
I kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is your hand. (sing.)
à kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is his/her hand.
Ko kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	These are our hands. (excl.)
Kɔa kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	These are our hands. (incl.)
Ka kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	These are your hands. (pl.)
O kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	These are their hands.

2. Question and Answer

a. The tutor points to someone's hand and says ŋ kɔ̀ lɛ, i kɔ̀ lɛ, or à kɔ̀ lɛ. The student replies m̀m̀, 'yes' or gbàaò, 'no', depending on whether the tutor's statement was right or wrong.

Teacher:	__ kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is __ hand.
Student:	m̀m̀.	Yes
	Gbàaò.	No.

b. After practicing the first drill for a while, the student should add a sentence to his reply.

Teacher:	ŋ kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is my hand.
Student:	m̀m̀, i kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	Yes, this is your hand.
or	Gbàaò, i kɔ̀ wá e kéa.	No, this is not your hand.
or	Gbàaò, ŋ kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	No, this is my hand.

c. After practicing the first two drills, the tutor asks the question, "Whose hand is this?"

Teacher:	Dɛȉ à kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa?	Whose hand is this?
Student:	__ kɔ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is __ hand.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. How to Run Picture Drills

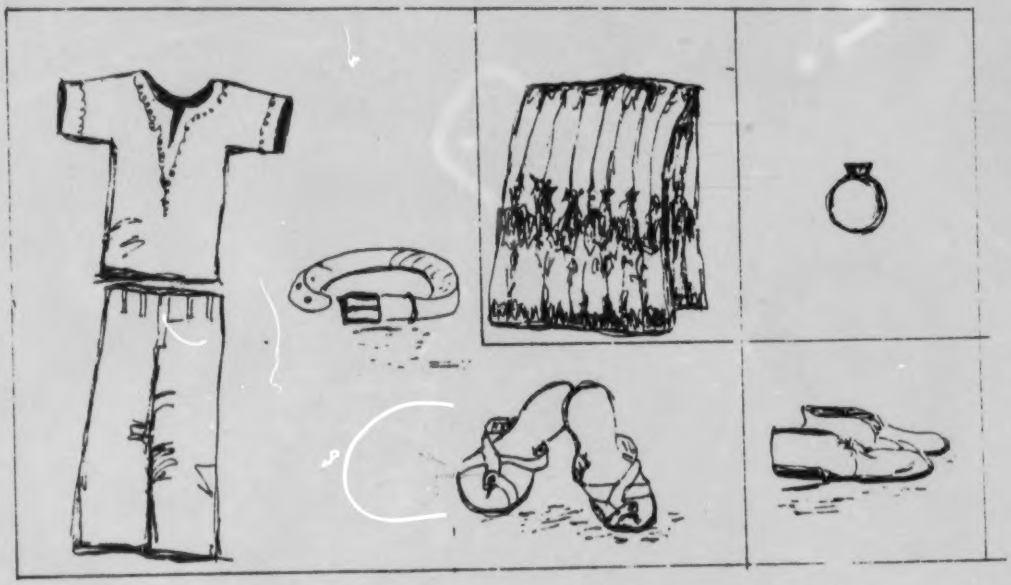
Trying to understand a foreign language by mentally translating what you hear into English is an inherently limited technique. You will never be able to do it fast enough to understand normal speech.

One way of learning new material without relaying on mental translation is by the use of pictures. You can use them in this way:

1. Learn the phrase or word associated with the first picture by the technique of listening and repeating.
2. Do the same with the second picture.
3. Give the correct response when your tutor points ot each picture you have studied.
4. Continue adding one more item at a time and reviewing what you have learned after adding each new item.

B. Clothes

1. dàsɔ̀
2. bɛ̀lɛ̀
3. bàá
4. yèlèsɔ̀
5. bɛ̀lɛ̀ɓɛ̀lɛ̀
6. sàkpà
7. ɓɔ̀ɔ́



1. Read the directions on how to do a picture drill. Then follow the instructions using these sentence frames:

___ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a ___
___ lɛ.	It's a ___.

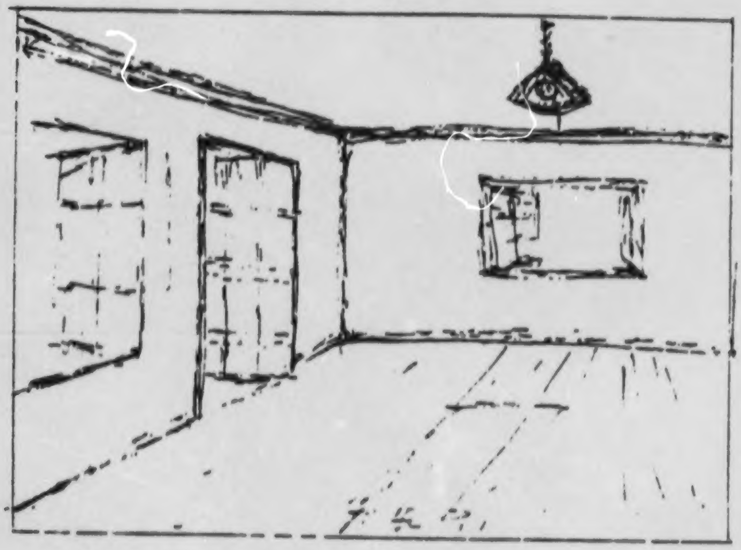
2. Question and Answer

a. ____ lɛ́ e kéa?	Is this a ____?
m̀m̀, ____ lɛ́ e kéa.	Yes, this is a ____.
Gbàaò, ____ wá e kéa.	No, this is not a ____.
b. Mɛ́ e ké ɓ̂ɛ?	What is this?
____ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a ____.
____ lɛ.	It's a ____.

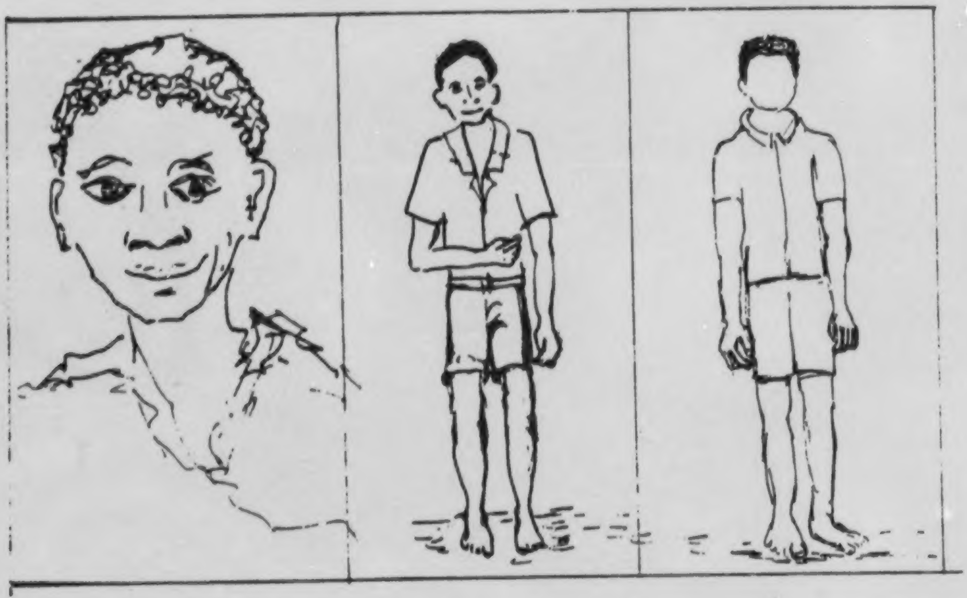
C. Parts of a Room

First, the tutor points to the appropriate object when saying each sentence (see below). The the student points to the object named while repeating the sentence. If class is being held outdoors, the tutor should substitute the names of some other objects which are in sight.

Gbắắ lɛ e dīkea.	That is the ceiling.
Tíé lɛ́ e dīkéa.	That is a light.
Káa lé lɛ́ e dīkéa.	That is a doorway.
Wínà lɛ́ e dīkéa.	That is a window.
Sɛ́lɛ́ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is the floor.



D. Body Parts



1. nyu
2. peà, pelà
3. kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́
4. gȁwɛ́nɛ́
5. gbī
6. wű, wiíwű

1. Identification

____ lɛ.	It's a ____.
____ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a ____.

2. Question and Answer

____ lɛ́ e kéa?	Is this a ____?
m̀m̀, ____ lɛ (e kéa).	
Gbàaò, ____ wá (e kéa).	

IV. PRONUNCIATION EXERCISES

A. Yes/No Question Intonation

Yes/no questions differ from statements in Mano only by their intonation. There is no change in word order, as in English. Yes/no questions are pronounced with a slightly higher overall pitch than statements. The final syllable is slightly lengthened and the tone rises.

Learn to distinguish question and statement intonation with these pairs. Don't worry about understanding the sentences. Just listen to whether they have statement or question intonation.

Statement	Question
Lɛ máá mi ká. - 'He is a Mano.'	Lɛ máá mi ká? - 'Is he a Mano?'
Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e yílí gɛ̃̀. - 'The man saw a tree.'	Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e yílí gɛ̃̀? - 'Did the man see a tree.'
Mia séíséí o yɔ mi. - 'Everybody drank liquor.'	Mia séíséí o yɔ mi? - 'Did everybody drink liquor?'
I nà lɛ wìì kpàà pìè. - 'Your wife is cooking meat.'	I nà lɛ wìì kpàà pìè? - 'Is your wife cooking meat?'
I ɓɔ́ɔ́ lɔ́ lɔ́ɔ́ yí. - 'You bought a ring in the market.'	I ɓɔ́ɔ́ lɔ́ lɔ́ɔ́ yí? - 'Did you buy a ring in the market.'

When you have learned to hear the differences between statement and question intonation, have your tutor read the sentences again and repeat them after him.

B. Consonants

These drills represent the discriminations which are hardest for English speakers to hear. Don't try to learn them all at once. Keep going back to them and practicing again until you learn them.

1. k-kp Drill

Note: Some Mano speakers pronounce sequences of /kpi/ and /kpe/ as /kpwi/ and /kpwe/. The /w/ has been omitted because your tutor will automatically add it if he is accustomed to using it.

	Column I		Column II	
a.	káá	to pour	kpáá	raft
b.	kɛ	to do, make	kpɛ	how, which
c.	kíli	like this, so	kpíli	feast
d.	kɵlɵ	shell, bark	kpee	bell
e.	kunu	Kru	kpuú	short
f.	kûò	turtle	kpuò	knee

2. g-gb Drill

Note: Speakers who pronounce /kpi/ and /kpe/ as /kpwi/ and /kpwe/ will also say /gbwi/ and /gbwe/. Again, the /w/ is omitted.

	Column I		Column II	
a.	gɛ̃̀	to see	gbɛ̃̀	to put
b.	gɔɔ	canoe	gbɔɔ	pot
c.	gé	inside of belly	gbe	son
d.	gí	outside of belly	gbĩ	body
e.	gàà	dead	gbaa	then
f.	gɛ̀ɛ̃̀	spirit	gbɛɛ	any, none
g.	gɛĩ́	an orange	gbɛ̃ĩ	smoke

3. kp-gb Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	kpáá	raft	gbaa	then
b.	kpíli	feast	gbínì	heavy
c.	kpuò	knee	gbùò	big
d.	kpà̃á̃	fish	gbã̃ã̃	branch
e.	kpɛ́í	throat	gbɛ̃í	smoke
f.	kpó	a round thing	gbo	excrement

4. l-d Drill

Find out if your tutor sometimes uses an alternate pronunciation of /l/ which sounds more like a /d/. If he does not, skip this drill. If he does, have him use the pronunciation which is more like /d/ when doing the drill.

	Column I		Column II	
a.	là	on	dà	to drop
b.	lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ	to sell	dɔ́ɔ́ dɔ	to have a conversation
c.	lìi	older brother or sister	dìì	cow
d.	lɔ́	to buy	dɔ	to know, to stand
e.	lɛ́ɛ́	leaf	dɛɛ	new
f.	lúó	day, time	duo	to throw
g.	làà	knife	dàa	father

5. ɓ-gb Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	ɓa	a sore	gba	to give
b.	ɓe	bunch, bundle	gbe	son
c.	ɓo	to pick, remove	gbo	excrement
d.	ɓɛɛ	fruit	gbɛɛ	any, none
e.	ɓɔ́ɔ́	ring	gbɔɔ	pot
f.	ɓii	because	gbĩ	body
g.	ɓu	rice	gbùò	big

6. p-kp Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	pɛ	thing	kpɛ	how, which
b.	pĩ̀ã̀	story	kpĩã̀	beads
c.	púlú	white	kpuú	short
d.	pèlè	to fall	kpee	bell
e.	pánĩ	pan	kpã̂ã̀	torch
f.	pà	place, home	kpàà	to cook

7. b-ɓ Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	bu	gun	ɓu	rice
b.	bɛ̀lɛ̀	pants	ɓɛ̀lɛ̀	rope, vine
c.	bòo	to mix together	ɓòo	vegetables
d.	bé(e)	alive	ɓé	animal horn
e.	bàá	shoes	ɓáá	sheep
f.	bà	inside (a liquid)	ɓà	a sore

C. Vowel Length and Nasalization

1. Short Vowels - Long Vowels

Vowels in Mano can be distinguished not just by quality but also by their length. Practice hearing the difference between long and short vowels in this sound discrimination drill.

	Column I		Column II	
a.	sí	to carry	síí	hawk
b.	yí	in, inside	yíí	water
c.	lé	mouth	lee	woman
d.	gbe	son	kpee	bell
e.	lɛ̀	yard, place	lɛ́ɛ́	leaf
f.	kɛ	to do	kɛɛ̀	year
g.	là	on	làà	knife
h.	nà	wife	nàà	border
i.	lɔ́	to buy	lɔ́ɔ́	market
j.	kɔ̀	hand, arm	kɔ̀ɔ̀	to dry
k.	gbo	excrement	gbòo	dirt, garbage
l.	zò	heart	zóó	wise man, magician
m.	lú	daughter	luú	bush

2. Nasalized Vowels

Of the seven vowels in Mano /i/, /ɛ/, /a/, /ɔ/, and /u/ can be nasalized. The only vowels which are never nasalized are /e/ and /o/. Listen to the following examples of nasalized vowels, then practice hearing the distinction between oral and nasal with the following drill. Notice that nasalized /ɛ/ and /ɔ/ are pronounced with the tongue slightly higher in the mouth than when they are not nasalized.

/ĩ/	gbĩ	body	/ũ/	wṹkele	head
	dèĩ́	snail		tóṹ	palm tree
	wĩ̀ĩ́	top of the head		lũṹ	musical instrument
/ɛ̃/	gɛ̃̀	to see	/ɔ̃/	dɔ̃́	a cough
	gbɛ̃̀	to write		kɔ̃̀ɔ̃	clay
	kɔ̀ɛ̃́	basket		fɔ̃́	five cents
/ã/	gã̀	foot, leg			
	fãã	wind			
	kpã̀ã́	fish			

	Column I - oral		Column II - nasal	
a.	gà	to die	gã̀	foot, leg
b.	ká	house	kã́	to cut
c.	gɔ́	kola	gɔ̃	man
d.	gbɔɔ	pot	gbɔ̃́ɔ̃̀	Bassa
e.	káá	to pour	kã̀ã	stealing
f.	peà	forehead, face	pĩã̀	story
g.	kéléí-kèlèì	small-small	kéléĩ́-kèlèĩ̀	well (healthy)

3. Nasalized Vowels followed by a Consonant

When a consonant follows a nasalized vowel in the same word, a nasal consonant is inserted between them.

Examples:	tóṹ	'palm tree'
	tóṹ(n)wɛ́lɛ́	'palm kernel
	tóṹ(n)yɔ	'palm wine'

This inserted nasal consonant is not written down in this book, because its presence is completely predictable.

V. FURTHER PRACTICE

1. Taping

Continue taping dialogues and exercises for review at home.

2. Vocabulary Lists

It is a good idea to keep a list of the words and phrases you have learned. The easiest way to review is to write them on small slips of paper, or cards, Mano on one side and English on the other. Go through the pile, looking at the Mano, and trying to remember the English. Then turn it over, look at the English and try to think of the Mano. When you have learned a word well, move it to a separate stack, which you review once a week.

3. Greetings

Continue to practice greeting people in Mano. Try to use as many different phrases as possible. You should pay attention to how Mano greet each other. What phrases do they use? How long are their greetings? To whom do they say hello? When do they shake hands? Do women and men shake hands the same way? What determines how loud the finger snap is?

4. Learning Names of Objects

Learn the names of 3 or 4 objects (e.g., cooking utensils), asking in Mano. Practice the names, write them down, and include them in your vocabulary list.

5. Dictation

After transcribing each sentence, write down the English equivalent.

a.	M ɓɛ́ɛ lɛ.	It's my friend.
b.	Ko wéa ke!	Let's shake hands!
c.	Ló wínà mɔ̀!	Go to the window.
d.	à gɛ̆ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is his foot.
e.	ɓɔ́ɔ́ lɛ.	It's a ring.
f.	Dɛȉ lɛ?	Who is it?
g.	Bàá lɛ́ e dĭkéa.	That is a shoe.
h.	I kɔ̀ zɛ̀ɛ̀ i pelà mɔ̀!	Point to your forehead/face.

VI. VOCABULARY LIST

Nouns

bàá...shoe(s)

bɛ̀lɛ̀...pants

bɛ̀lɛ̀bɛ̀lɛ̀...belt (lit., pants' rope)

bɛ́ɛ...friend

bɔ́ɔ́...ring

dàsɔ̀...shirt

dɛĩ̀...who

gã̀wɛ́nɛ́...toe

gbã́ã́...ceiling

gbĩ...body

káa lé...doorway (lit., house's mouth)

kiikɛìmi...student

kiizɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀mĩ̀...teacher

kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́...finger

nyu...nose

peà, pelà...face

sàkpà...slipper(s)

sɛ́lɛ́...ground, floor

tíé...a light, a fire

wínà...window

wṹ, wĩĩ́wṹ...hair

yèlèsɔ̀...lapa

Verbs

lo _A_ ká _B*_ píé...take A to B (lit., go with A to B)

nu _A_ ká _B_ píé...bring A to B (lit., come with A to B)

*B = a word referring to a person.

Phrases

___lɛ, ___ lɛ́ɛ...It's a ___.
___lɛ́ e kéa, ___ gɛ̃̀ e kéa...This is a ___.
___lɛ́ e dĩkéa...That (in sight) is a ___.
___lɛ́ e yía...That (out of sight) is a ___.

Mɛ́ e ɓɛ?...What is it?
Dɛĩ̀ lɛ?...Who is it?
Mɛ́ e ké ɓɛ?...What is this?
Mɛ́ e dĩké ɓɛ?...What is that? (in sight)
Mɛ́ e yí ɓɛ?...What is that? (out of sight)

kpɔ́kpɔ́...knock, knock
Ko wɛ́à kɛ...Let's shake hands.
I sɛ́nɛ́...Welcome.
Ka sɛ́nɛ́...Welcome (to more than one person).
I yùá...Hello.

........................LESSON THREE..............................

TABLE OF CONTENTS

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V. FURTHER PRACTICE

VI. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Where are you going?

A:	M ɓɛ́ɛ, i túó.	Hello, my friend.
B:	m̀m̀, i túá? íì gó mɛ́?	Yes, hello. Where are you coming from?
A:	ńǹ gó nyɛ́nɛi.	I'm coming from the farm.
B:	I mìɛ̀nì lɛ yí?	Are your people there?
A:	m̀m̀, o yí sɛ̀.	Yes, they're well there.
B:	I ló pìè mɛ́ɛzàá dɛ̀ɛ̀ká?	Where are you going now?
A:	N ló pìè m píé ká là. Mɛ́ ɓa kɛ pìè?	I'm going to my house What are you doing?
B:	N yábó kɛ pìè zèe.	I'm working here.
A:	m̀m̀, ko làa píé?	Okay, goodbye.
B:	Ko làa píé.	Goodbye.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Terms of Address

The following terms of address can be used instead of names, when greeting someone.

someone older (to show respect)	n nàa	my father
	m màa	my grandmother
someone the same age	m ɓɛ́ɛ	my friend
	gɔ̃	man
	lee	woman
a child	nɛ́fũ	child
a group of people	m ɓɛ́ɛni	my friends
	n dàani	my people (lit., my fathers - to show respect)

1. Picture Drill

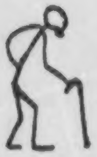
When your tutor points to a picture, give the appropriate greeting. Go through once with the phrases from (a), then repeat with (b).

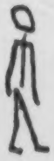
a. __________, ɓaà vùò.

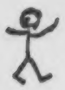
__________, kaà vùò.

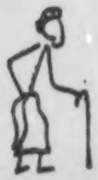
b. __________, í túó.

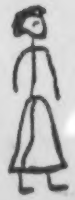
__________, ka túó.

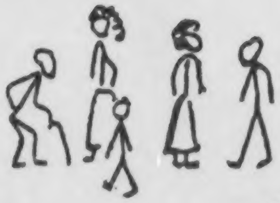












B. Asking After Someone

Where in English we would ask about someone's family by saying, "How is your father?", "How is your mother?" and so on, the Mano ask a simpler, more basic question: "Is your father there?". The answer is "yes" or "no", depending on whether your father is there or not.

1. Repetition

m̀m̀, lɛ yí.	Yes, he's there.
Lɛ yí sɛ̀.	He's well there.
Lɛ yí kéléí̃ kèlèì̃.	He's well there.
Gbàaò, ye wá yí.	No, he's not there.

2. Question and Answer

Give an appropriate response when your tutor asks each question:

I dàa lɛ yí?	Is your father there?
I lèe lɛ yí?	Is your mother there?
I dɛ̃̀ lɛ yí?	Is your husband there?
I nà lɛ yí?	Is your wife there?

3. Repetition

When asked about a group of people, a different response is necessary:

O yi.	They are there.
O yí sɛ̀.	They are well there.
O yí kéléí̃ kèlèì̃.	They are well there.
O wá yí.	They are not there.

4. Question and Answer

Give one of the above responses to these questions:

I mìɛ̀nì o yí?	Are your people (family) there?
I nɔ́ɔ̀ o yí?	Are your children there?

5. Picture Drill

Use the pictures from the exercise in II.A. When your tutor points to a picture, ask the appropriate question:

Example: Teacher: points to old man

Student: I dȁa lɛ yí?

Teacher: points to younger woman.

Student: I nà lɛ yí?

C. Alienable Possession

Most possessions, unlike body parts or family members, can change ownership easily. Such items as clothing, tools, money, etc. require the use of a different set of possessive pronouns. These are called the alienable possessive pronouns.

Some words take possessive pronouns from the opposite set to the one that would be expected. Compare:

i ɓɛ́ɛ	'your friend' (inalienable)
ɓà nɛ́	'your child' (alienable)

The alienable pronouns differ from the inalienable pronouns in several general ways. They are characterized by low tone and greater length. The difference between the two sets is most striking in the forms for 'your' - i (inalienable) vs. ɓà (alienable). If you are unsure whether a particular word takes alienable or inalienable possessives, ask your tutor to say 'your ___', and it will be easy to tell which type of possessive is used.

There are two alternate forms for the alienable possessive pronouns. Find out which forms your tutor uses, and learn those forms of the pronouns.

I	II	
m̀	m̀m̀	'my'
ɓà	(same)	'your'
là	àà, à	'his, hers'
kò	kòò	'our' (excl.)
kɔà	(same)	'our' (incl.)
kà	kàà	'your' (pl.)
wà	(same)	'their'

1. Repetition Drill

ǹǹ dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's my shirt.
ɓà dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's your shirt.
làà dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's his/her shirt
Kòò dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's our (excl.) shirt.
Kɔ̀à dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's our (incl.) shirt.
Kàà dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's your (pl.) shirt.
Wà dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's their shirt.
Sèé là dàsɔ̀ lɛ.	It's Saye's shirt.

2. Substitution Drill

For each sentence, use all of the alienable pronouns as a substitution.

____ kii lɛ́ e kéa.	This is ____ book.
____ bɛ̀lɛ̀ lɛ́ e kéa.	These are ____ pants.
____ tébò lɛ́ e dǐkéa.	That is ____ table.

3. Sound Discrimination - Alienable vs. Inalienable Possession

Compare the two sets of possessive pronouns modifying kii. When kii has the meaning 'book', it requires alienable possession. When it has the meaning 'skin', it requires inalienable possession. Use this drill to learn to hear the difference between the two sets.

Alienable		Inalienable	
ǹǹ kii	my book	n kii	my skin
ɓà kii	your book	i kii	your skin
làà kii	his/her book	à kii	his/her skin
kòò kii	our book(s)	ko kii	our skin
kàà kii	your (pl.) book	ka kii	your (pl.) skin
wà kii	their book	[illegible] kii	their skin

4. Substitution Drill - Alienable vs. Inalienable

When your tutor reads each word from the list below, respond with the correct possessive phrase.

Example: Teacher: bɛ̀lɛ̀
Student: m̀m̀ bɛ̀lɛ̀

Go through once with each pronoun - my, your, his, our, your (pl.), and their. After the first few times, the tutor can change the order of the words or substitute different ones.

____ dàa	____ father
____ lé	____ mouth
____ kiilɛ́ɛ́	____ paper
____ nɛ́fú	____ child
____ bɛ̀lɛ̀	____ pants
____ lìidíé	____ older sibling
____ kiizɔ̀ɔ̀mì	____ teacher
____ yèlèsɔ̀	____ lapa
____ wṹkele	____ head
____ ɓɛ́ɛ	____ friend

D. Progressive Tense

Mano has a tense which is almost identical in usage to the English present progressive tense, as in "I am going", "he is coming", etc. This is formed by adding /pìè/ or /pìà/ after the verb. /pìè/ is used in the Lao dialect spoken between Ganta and Zointa; /pìà/ is used in the other dialects. The table below will show the subject pronouns used with this tense. Note that a subject pronoun is present even when there is a noun subject.

Example: Gɔ̃ lɛ ló pìà. The man (he) is going.

This is true for all tenses in Mano. It is important not to leave out the subject pronoun, because often the form of this pronoun is the only thing that signals what tense the sentence is in.

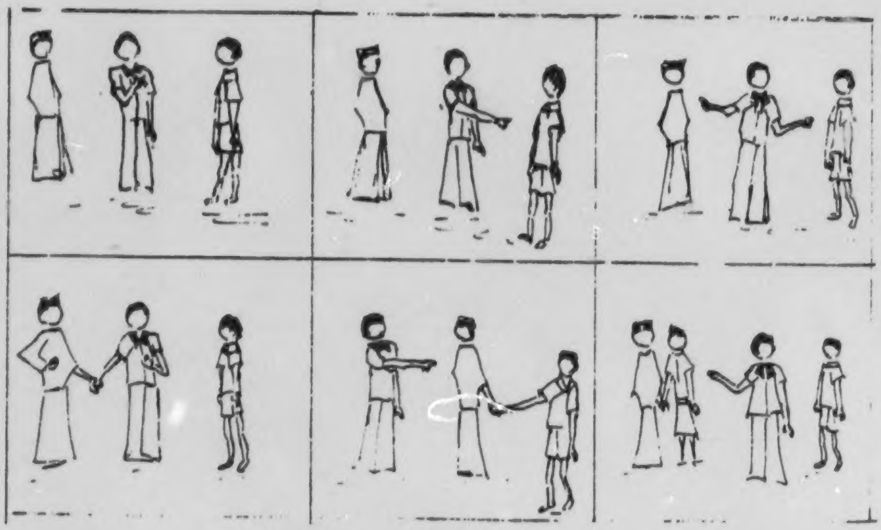
The subject pronouns used in sentences with progressive tense are shown below. Notice that these pronouns are the same as those used for inalienable possession, except that /lɛ/ replaces /à/ in the third person singular.

1. Repetition Drill

N ló pìà.	I am going.
I ló pìà.	You (sing.) are going.
Lɛ ló pìà.	He/she/it is going.
Kʋ ló pìà.	We (excl.) are going.
Kɔa ló pìà.	We (incl.) are going.
Ka ló pìà.	You (pl.) are going.
O ló pìà.	They are going.
Gɔ̃ lɛ ló pìà.	The man is going.

2. Picture Drill

Each of the following pictures illustrates one of the pronouns used in Mano. Use them to learn the pronouns in this way.



a. The tutor points to the first picture and says the appropriate sentence, "N ló pìè." You repeat after him several times.

b. The tutor points to the picture without speaking and you give the sentence. If you make a mistake, he will correct you, and you will repeat the sentence correctly. Do this several times.

c. Repeat the first two steps with the second picture.

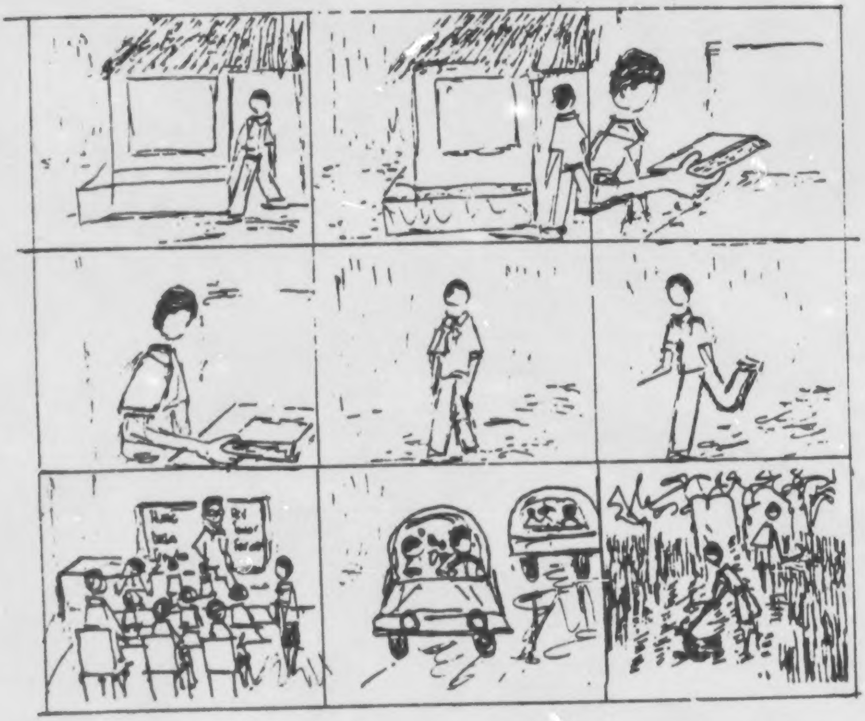
d. The tutor points to either Picture I or Picture 2, and you say the appropriate sentence. Repeat this step several times.

e. Repeat the same process for the rest of the pictures. After learning each new term, test yourself by having your tutor point to each of the pictures learned in random order.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. What is he doing?

Use the pictures to practice the present progressive tense, and to learn the vocabulary for some common activities.



1.	Mɛ́(e)a kɛ pìè?	What is he doing?
a.	Lɛ ló pìè pɛ́lɛi zoé.	He is going outside.
b.	Lɛ ló pìè kɛì.	He is going inside (in the house).
c.	Lɛ kii sí pìè tébò là.	He is picking up a book from the table.
d.	Lɛ kii dà pìè tã́ã̀.	He is putting down a book.
e.	Lɛ tà pìè (tàà sí pìè).	He is walking.
f.	Lɛ bàlà sí pìè.	He is running.

g. Lɛ káà ta pìè.	He is driving a car.
O káà sí pìè.	They are riding in a car.
h. Lɛ nyɛ́nɛ kɛ pìè.	He is farming.
i. Lɛ kii zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ pìè.	He is teaching.
O kii dă pìè.	They are learning.

2. Mɛ́ ɓa kɛ pìè?	What are you doing?
a. N ló pìè pɛ́lɛi zoé.	I am going outside.

Continue with the rest of the pictures.

3. Mɛ́ ma kɛ pìè?	What am I doing?
a. I ló pìè pɛ́lɛi zoé.	You are going outside.

Continue with the rest of the pictures.

B. There's (X) - (X) gɛ̃̀

The phrase '_X_ gɛ̃̀' can be used when indicating the position of something, meaning 'there is _X_.' It literally means 'look at _X_'.

1. Repeat these sentences after your tutor, and indicate the location of the object mentioned.

Tébò gɛ̃̀.	There's a table.
Káa lé gɛ̃̀.	There's the door.
Kiikɛl̀mì gɛ̃̀.	There's a student.
N gà gɛ̃̀.	There's my foot.

2. Practice these question and answer pairs.

ɓà kii lɛ mɛ́?	Where's your book?
ǹǹ kii gɛ̃̀.	There's my book.
N nyu lɛ mɛ́ɛ zàá?	Where is my ear?
Ye gɛ̃̀.	There it is.

Sɛ́lɛ́ zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show me the floor.
Sɛ́lɛ́ gɛ̃̀.	There's the floor.
Káa lé zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show me the door.
Ye gɛ̃̀.	There it is.

3. When your tutor asks the location of something in the room, respond by pointing to it and saying 'X gɛ̃̀' (filling in the appropriate word).

C. Bring and Take

Notice how the addition of a phrase ending in /ká/, 'with', changes the meaning of /ló/ and /nu/.

ló X ká Y píé	to take X to Y (go with X to Y)
nu X ká Y píé	to bring X to Y (come with X to Y)

1. Repetition Drill

O nu pìà dàsɔ̀ ká m píé.	They are bringing me a shirt.
N ló pìà kii ká i píé.	I'm taking you a book.
N ló pìà kii ká kiizɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀mì píé.	I'm taking a book to (the) teacher.
Lɛ nu pìà dàsɔ̀ ká m píé.	He is bringing me a shirt.
I nu pìà dàsɔ̀ ká m píé.	You are bringing me a shirt.
N ló pìà kii ká à píé.	I'm taking him a book.

2. Action Drills

a. Nu ɓà kii ká m píé! — Bring me your book.

Substitute other objects whose names have been learned:

Nu ɓà ____ ká m píé! — Bring me your ____.

b. Ló ɓà kii ká ____ píé! — Take your book to ____.

Use the name of another student in the class.

IV. PRONUNCIATION EXERCISES

A. Nasal Consonants

The only nasal consonants that might give an English speaker trouble are /ŋ/ and /ny/.

The letter /ŋ/ is pronounced like the /ng/ in 'sing' and like the same sound in English, Mano /ŋ/ never begins a word. It is found only rarely except for its most common use, as one pronunciation of the first person pronoun, /m/.

The most important thing to remember about /ny/ is that although it is spelled with two letters, it is pronounced as a single sound. You can say it properly like this. Find out where your tongue is when you say 'shh'. Now, with your tongue in that position, touch it to the roof of your mouth and try to say /n/, or a word beginning with /n/. You will pronounce /ny/ instead. It is also interesting that /ny/ is only found at the beginnings of words in Mano.

1. n-ny Drill

	Column I		Column II	
a.	nàà	boundary	nyàà	egg
b.	nu	to come	nyu	nose
c.	nà	wife	nyà	to dig (a plant)
d.	nɛ́nɛ́	cold (noun)	nyɛ́nɛ	farm
e.	nɛ́	child	nyɛ	to finish

2. Listen to the following examples of words with /ŋ/.

tèŋè	pigeon
tàŋa	a space between the teeth
táŋálá	chair
dáŋé dàŋè	sticky like glue

Compare /n/ and /ŋ/ in these words:

nanà	tongue	náŋá	bad luck due to misbehavior
tɛ̀nɛ̀	to climb	tèŋè	pigeon

Repeat the words with /ŋ/ after your tutor.

3. Automatic Nasalization of Vowels

A vowel immediately before or after a nasal consonant (/n/, /m/, /ny/, /ŋ/) is always nasalized. Since this always occurs, it is not necessary to mark the nasalization. Listen for the automatic nasalization in the following words compared with their non-nasal counterparts.

	Column I		Column II	
a.	wɛ́nɛ́	worm	wɛ́lɛ́	nut, seed
b.	pɛ́nɛɛ	today	pɛ́lɛ	town
c.	màa	grandmother	bàá	shoes
d.	nà	wife	là	on
e.	nià	razor	tía	pan, bucket

4. Nasal Vowels

In a sequence of two vowels, it is possible for both to be nasalized; for only the second of the two to be nasalized; or for neither to be nasalized. Listen for the differences in these pairs of words.

vv-vṽ

	Column I		Column II	
a.	lòɛ̀	pus, rising*	tuɛ̃	charcoal
b.	lɛ́i	sky	dèĩ́	snail
c.	gɔɔ	canoe	kòṹ	basket
d.	bɛ̀i	to fit	ɓéĩ́	a little bit

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*Liberian English

vṽ-ṽṽ

	Column I		Column II	
a.	tóṹ	palm tree	dɔ̃́ṹ	a cough
b.	b̂éĩ́	a little bit	gɛ̃ĩ́	ãn orange
c.	kpóũ	door	kpɔ̃̀ṹ	cowrie

5. Changes in First Person

Here are some examples of /m/, 'my', before words starting with different consonants. Note the changes that occur. Listen to the following words and repeat them after your tutor. Pronounce a sequence of two nasals by prolonging the sound.

m peà	my face	n tóó	my ear
m b̂e	my lips	n dàa	my father (also n nàa)
m màa	my grandmother	n lìi	my older brother or sister (also n nìi)
n sɔ́	my teeth	ŋ kɔ̀	my hand
n zɔ̀là	my chest	ŋ gà	my foot
n nà	my wife	ŋ kpɛ́ná	my chin
ny nyu	my nose	ŋ gbe	my son

B. Sound Discrimination - Rising Tones

1. Low to High Tone

In each of these sentences the third word begins with low tone and ends with high tone. Listen while your tutor reads them, concentrating on hearing the tone pattern.

ńǹ nàà dèĩ́ ká.	I want a snail.
ńǹ nàà kpà̃á̃ ká.	I want a fish.
ńǹ nàà yɔ̀ɔ́ ká.	I want a chain.
ńǹ nàà bàá ká.	I want shoes.
ńǹ nàà mĩná ká.	I want a spoon.

2. Mid to High Tone

Now listen to words with mid-high tone in the same sentence frame.

ńǹ nàà gɛ̃í ká.	I want an orange.
ńǹ nàà bĩ́ĩ́ ká.	I want a flower.
ńǹ nàà suú ká.	I want grass.
ńǹ nàà guó ká.	I want groundnuts.
ńǹ nàà lɛyí ká.	I want rain.

3. Comparison

The tutor should read a sentence from Exercise 1, followed by a sentence from Exercise 2. Listen for the difference in tone. Do this until you think you can hear the difference.

4. Low to Mid Tone

Listen to these sentences where the third word has a low-mid tone pattern.

ńǹ nàà ɓòo ká.	I want vegetables.
ńǹ nàà sìi ká.	I want a spider.
ńǹ nàà gɛ̀a ká.	I want a rat.
ńǹ nàà mɛ̀nɛ ká.	I want a snake.
ńǹ nàà zɔ̀lo ká.	I want a red deer.

5. Comparison

The tutor should read a sentence from Exercise 4, followed by a sentence from Exercise 1, then a sentence from Exercise 2, followed by a sentence from Exercise 1 again. Continue in this way, comparing the different rising tone patterns. When you think you can hear the differences between them, test yourself, by guessing the tone pattern when the tutor reads sentences at random from the different lists.

C. Sound Discrimination - Falling Tones

In the following sentence sets, the second word has a falling tone. Listen to each set of sentences several times, until you feel confident about hearing the tone pattern. Compare the tones of the middle word with the tones of the words before and after it.

1. High to Low Tone

Ko súò gɛ̃̀.	We saw a pepper.
Ko bólò gɛ̃̀.	We saw a banana.
Ko gbíè gɛ̃̀.	We saw a cutlass.
Ko dálà gɛ̃̀.	We saw a dollar
Ko túù gɛ̃̀.	We saw a nail.

2. High to Middle Tone

Ko bɛ́ɛ gɛ̃̀.	We saw a friend.
Ko fɔ́lɔ gɛ̃̀.	We saw a hoe.
Ko tía gɛ̃̀.	We saw a pan.
Ko kpóũ gɛ̃̀.	We saw a door.
Ko nyɛ́nɛ gɛ̃̀.	We saw a farm.

3. Middle to Low Tone

Ko nià gɛ̃̀.	We saw a razor.
Ko gboɛ̀ gɛ̃̀.	We saw a tick.
Ko kpuò gɛ̃̀.	We saw a knee.
Ko dɔmì gɛ̃̀.	We saw a chief.
Ko nanà gɛ̃̀.	We saw a tongue.

4. Comparison

Listen to the following sets of sentences, where the first has a High-Low word, the second a High-Mid word, and the third a Mid-Low word.

Ko súò gɛ̏.	Ko kpóu gɛ̏.	Ko kpuò gɛ̏.
Ko bólò gɛ̏.	Ko fɔ́lɔ gɛ̏.	Ko dɔmì gɛ̏.
Ko gbíè gɛ̏.	Ko tía gɛ̏.	Ko nià gɛ̏.

Test yourself by having your tutor read sentences from the exercises. at random. After he reads each sentence, say what tone you heard on the second word. Then check to see if you were correct. If you are having difficulty hearing the differences in tone, return to this exercise later for review. You should also record it for listening at home.

D. Statement vs. Command Intonation

The final tone of a statement is lowered by almost one level, so that a final high tone sounds almost like mid tone; final mid tone like low tone; and final low tone is lower than low tone.

Commands are distinguished from statements by the fact that this final tone lowering does not occur. Statement intonation is marked in writing by a period; command intonation, by an exclamation mark.

Statement	Command
Ko yɔ mi. - 'We drank liquor.'	Ko yɔ mi! - 'Let's drink!'
Ka à gba tɔ̀ɔ̀ púlú ká. - 'You (pl.) gave him a white chicken.'	Ka à gba tɔ̀ɔ̀ púlú ká! - 'You (pl.) give him a white chicken!'
Ko pɛ ɓèlè. - 'We ate.'	Ko pɛ ɓèlè. - 'Let's eat!'
Ka yà tã́ã̀. - 'You (pl.) sat down.'	Ka yà tã́ã̀! - 'You (pl.) sit down!'
I nu à ká m píé. - 'You brought it to me.'	I nu à ká m píé! - 'Bring it to me!'

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Taping

You should always tape dialogues and exercises from each lesson for review outside of class, and you should also make an effort to use what you have learned when speaking to the Mano people you know. It should become automatic to do these things, even if they are not mentioned in the lesson.

B. Meeting People

Imagine several different situations involving people meeting each other. Vary the time of day, whether they know each other, etc. Write down a short dialogue that could take place in each situation. Have your tutor correct your dialogues during the next class session.

C. Conversation

Using the same situation you used for writing your dialogues, take one part and have a short conversation with your tutor. Don't try to copy your written dialogue exactly. Just have a natural conversation.

D. Dictation

Note: you have not learned all the words used in this exercise. Concentrate simply on spelling them correctly.

1. I dàa gɛ̃̀.	There is your father.
2. Tèŋè lɛ́ e kéa.	This is a pigeon.
3. N gɛ̃́ĩ̀ gɛ̃.	I saw an orange.
4. Lɛ nyɛ́nɛ kɛ pìà.	He is farming.
5. Súò wá?	Isn't it pepper?
6. Tía lɛ?	Is it a bucket?
7. Tíé lɛ.	It's a light.
8. Ló dèĩ́ ká m píé!	Bring me a snail.

E. Translation

Write the Mano equivalent of each phrase and read it to your tutor.

1. They are working.
2. This isn't my shirt.
3. Is your wife there?
4. Good morning, my friend.
5. What news here?
6. What are you doing?
7. I am running.
8. This is my mother's lapa.

VI. VOCABULARY LIST

Nouns

dàa...father

dɛ̃̀...husband

gɔ̃...man

lee...woman

lèe; lòóò; lòkóò...mother

màa...grandmother

mìɛ̀nì...parents, family (lit., people)

nà...wife

nɛ (nɛ́fú)...child

nɔ́ɔ̀(nu); nɔ́ɔ̀bɛ...children

Other

dɛ̀ɛ̀ká...now, right now

_X_ gɛ̃̀...There is _X_.

mɛ́(ɛ zàá)...where

Verbs

dä...to taste; to learn

kii dã...to study (learn books)

gó...to come from

kɛ...to do

nyɛ́nɛ kɛ...to farm (do farming)

yábó kɛ, yɛ́bó kɛ...to work (do work)

sí...to take; to carry

bàlà sí...to run (take speed)

káà sí...to ride (in a car, truck, or bus)

tàà sí...to walk

ta...to walk

káà ta...to drive a car (bus, truck)

zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀...to show

kii zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀...to teach

LESSON FOUR

TABLE OF CONTENTS

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IV. FURTHER STUDY

V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Goodbye

(Wá approaches a group of people sitting in front of their house and greets them.)

Wá: M ɓɛ́ɛni, kà túó?	My friends, good afternoon.
Pèé: m̀m̀, kà túá?	Yes, good afternoon.
W: Ko mà zèe?	What news here?
P: Gbèaò. ɓi wá ló pìè Sàklépíé pɛ́nɛɛ?	Nothing bad. You're not going to Sacklepie today?
W: m̀m̀, ma wá ló pìè pɛ́nɛɛ. N ló pìè tòò làapíé.	Yes, I'm not going today. I'm going tomorrow morning.
P: I nyiɛ́ kɛ i dìè mɔ̀ yí.	Take care of yourself there.
W: m̀m̀. Maà ló, èé.	Yes. Well, I must go now.
P: Ko làaŋíé?	Goodbye.
W: m̀m̀, ko làapíé.	Yes, goodbye.

Dialogue - Good Night

(Sèé speaks to an old woman of the town in the evening.)

Sèé: M màa, i túó.	Grandmother, good afternoon.
Lekpáà: èè, ŋ gbe, i túá?	Yes, my son, good afternoon.
S: Ko mà i píé ká?	What news at your house?
L: Lɛ sɛ̀ o. I lèe lɛ yí?	It's fine. Is your mother there?
S: Lɛ yí sɛ̀.	She's fine there.
L: M wéé à bà.	Greet her for me.
S: m̀m̀. N ló pìè gbaa.	Yes. I'm going now.
L: Ko lɛ̀ é kpɛ̀i.	Good night.
S: Ko lɛ̀ é kpɛ̀i.	Good night.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Locative Sentences

Sentences expressing the location of a person or thing contain simply the subject (optional noun and obligatory pronoun) and the expression showing the location. There is no equivalent of the English verb 'to be'. The pronoun set used is the same as for the progressive tense.

Examples:	N kaì.	'I am in the house.'
	I pɛ́lɛi zèe?	'Are you in town here?'
	O zèe.	'They are here.'
	N dàa lɛ yí.	'My father is there.'

Locative expressions can also occur at the end of a sentence containing a verb.

Examples:	N ló pìè nyɛ́nɛi.	'I'm going to the farm.'
	Sèé lɛ yábó kɛ pìè pɛ́lɛi.	'Saye is working in town.'
	Ko ló pìè yí.	'We are going there.'

1. Question and Answer

Practice these Question/Answer pairs. The word for 'where' has two forms: a long form - mɛ́ɛ zàá, and a short form - mɛ́.

I kɔ̀ lɛ mɛ́ɛ zàá?	Where is your hand?
ŋ kɔ̀ lɛ zèe.	My hand is here.
Ny nyu lɛ mɛ́ɛ zàá?	Where is my nose?
I nyu lɛ yí.	Your nose is there.
N tóó lɛ mɛ́?	Where is my ear?
I tóó lɛ yí.	Your ear is there.
I nyiɛ́wɛ́lɛ́ lɛ mɛ́?	Where are your eyes?
Ny nyiɛ́wɛ́lɛ́ lɛ zèe.	My eyes are here.

Now substitute other body parts. When answering the question, point to the appropriate place, and remember to answer with 'my' when the tutor uses 'your' in the question, and vice versa. Review all the words you know for body parts.

2. Substitution Drill - I'm going to (X)

N ló pìè Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà (Gããpà).	I'm going to Ganta.
N ló pìè Sɛ̃gbéí.	I'm going to Saniquellie.
N ló pìè pɛ́lɛi.	I'm going to town.
nyɛ́nɛi	to the farm.
m píé kaì (kɛì)	to my house.
kiikɛi (kiikaì)	to the school.
Dukɔ́ɔ̀	to Monrovia.
Saklépíé	to Sacklepie.

Some of the words above consist of the merger of a noun and the word yí - 'in(side)', 'at', 'to', or wìì 'under'.

Examples: pɛ́lɛ - 'town' + yí = pɛ́lɛi 'in town'
nyɛ́nɛ - 'farm' + yí = nyɛ́nɛi 'in (at) the farm'
ka - 'house' + wìì = kaì (kɛì) 'in the house, inside'

You should also note that in Mano the same expression can be used to express location at a place and direction towards a place.

B. Negative Progressive Tense

The negative progressive is formed by using a special form of subject pronoun and placing wá just before the verb.

1. Repetition Drill

Ma wá ló pìè.	I'm not going.
ɓi wá ló pìè.	You're not going.
Ye wá ló pìè.	He/She is not going.
Ko wá ló pìè.	We (excl.) are not going.
Kɔa wá ló pìè.	We (incl.) are not going.
Ka wá ló pìè.	You (pl.) are not going.
O wá ló pìè.	They are not going.

2. Transformation - Positive and Negative Progressive.

When your tutor reads each sentence, give the corresponding positive or negative sentence.

Teacher: N ló pìè Dukɔ́ɔ̀.	I'm going to Monrovia.
Student: Ma wá ló pìè Dukɔ́ɔ̀.	I'm not going to Monrovia.
Teacher: ɓi wá yábó kɛ pìà.	You're not working.
Student: I yábó kɛ pìè.	You are working.
O nu pìè zèe.	They are coming here.
Lɛ kii zɔ̄̀ɔ̄̀ pìè.	He is teaching.
Ko wá nyɛ́nɛ kɛ pìè pɛ́nɛɛ.	We are not farming today.
Ye wá tàà sí pìè.	He is not walking.
N bàlà sí pìè.	I am running.
I ló pìè yí.	You are going there.
Ma wá nu pɛ́lɛi.	I'm not coming to town

C. Replies to Negative Questions

The Mano response to negative questions may be confusing at first. When Americans answer a question like "Aren't you coming?", they say "yes" if their answer is affirmative - "I am coming!" - and "no" if the answer contains a negative - "I'm not coming." The Mano reply more logically.

Remembering that two negatives make a positive, when asked "You're not coming?", they reply "No, (that's wrong) I am coming.", or they say "Yes, (you're right) I'm not coming."

1. Repetition

Practice the following Question-Answer pairs.

Q:	bi wá nu pìè?	Aren't you coming?
A:	Gbàaò, n nu pìè.	No, I am coming.
Q:	bi wá nu pìè?	Aren't you coming?
A:	m̀m̀, ma wá nu pìè.	Yes, I'm not coming.
Q:	Ma wá ló pìè pɛ́nɛɛ?	Aren't I going today?
A:	m̀m̀, bi wá ló pìè pɛ́nɛɛ.	Yes, you're not going today.
A:	Gbàaò, i ló pìè pɛ́nɛɛ.	No, you are going today.
Q:	O wá yí?	They aren't there?
A:	Gbàaò, o yí.	No, they are there.
A:	m̀m̀, o wá yí.	Yes, they aren't there.
Q:	Ye wá nyɛ́nɛi?	He's not at the farm?
A:	Gbàaò, lɛ yí.	No, he is there.
A:	m̀m̀, ye wá yí.	Yes, he's not there.

2. Question - Answer

Your tutor will ask the questions below. After asking each one, he will say either gbàaò or m̀m̀. You will give the appropriate negative or positive answer to the question.

Ye wá nyɛ́nɛ kɛ pìè?

Gbàaò, ____________________.

Ka wá ló pìè Sɛ̌gbéí?

m̀m̀, ____________________.

Ko wá káà sí pìè?

m̀m̀, ________________________________.

ɓí wá nu pìè?

Gbàaò, ______________________________.

Ye wá pɛ́lɛi?

m̀m̀, ________________________________.

Ma wá tàà sí pìè?

Gbàaò, ______________________________.

O wá yí?

m̀m̀, ________________________________.

Kò lèe ye wá kaì?

Gbàaò, ______________________________.

D. Conjunction of Commands

Two commands can be joined together with the word í. (This is actually a special form of the pronoun i - 'you'.

wɛ̀lɛ̀ í dɔ!	Stand up (literally, get up and stand).
nu zèe í yà táà!	Come here and sit down.

1. Action Drill

ɓà kii lé ɓo!	Open your book.
ɓà kii lé taa!	Close your book.
ɓà kii lé ɓo í à lé taa!	Open your book and close it.
Nu ɓà kii ká zèe í à lé ɓo!	Bring your book here and open it.
Ló ɓà sìyɛ̀ mɔ̀ í ɓà kii dà tɑ̃̀ɑ̃!	Go to your seat and put down your book.
Tàà sí káa lé mɔ̀ í ɓàlà sí ɓà sìyɛ̀ mɔ̀!	Walk to the door and run to your seat.

E. Pronouns with /lɛ/ and /gɛ̃̀/

The pronouns used in the sentence patterns '____ lɛ' - 'it is ____' - and '____ gɛ̃̀' - 'there is ____' - are taken fron the same set used with the negative progressive tense:

Ma lɛ.	'It's me.'
Ye gɛ̃̀.	'There it/he/she is.'

1. Repetition Drill

Ma lɛ.	It's me (I).	Ma gɛ̃̀.	There I am.
ɓ̱i lɛ.	It's you.	ɓ̱i gɛ̃̀.	There you are.
Ye lɛ.	It's her.	Ye gɛ̃̀.	There he is.
Ko lɛ.	It's us (we).	Ko gɛ̃̀.	There we are.
Kɔa lɛ.	It's us (inc.)	Kɔa gɛ̃̀.	There we (inc.) are.
Ka lɛ.	It's you (pl.)	Ka gɛ̃̀.	There you (pl.) are.
Wo lɛ.	It's them.	Wo gɛ̃̀.	There they are.

2. Question and Answer

Use the pronoun chart in Lesson 3 to indicate which pronoun to use when answering the following question. Repeat the question and answers until your response comes easily.

Dɛĩ̀ lɛ?	Who is it?
____ lɛ.	It's ____.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. Family Members

Some things should be noted about the way the Mano refer to family members.

1. There is no single word for aunt or uncle. Instead, the equivalent of phrases like "mother's brother", "father's brother" are used.
2. It appears that the words for "brother" and "sister", as in Liberian English, are not restricted to people with the same parents, but can apply to other relatives of the same generation.
3. When referring to brothers or sisters in Mano, the primary factor is not whether the person is male or female, as it is in English, but whether they are younger or older than the speaker. /lìi/ can mean either "older brother" or "older sister", while /lɛ́kɛ/ means "younger brother" or "younger sister". Sex can be specified if necessary by adding the words /gɔ̃zɛ/ - 'male' or /lezɛ/ - 'female'. Thus, n lìi gɔ̃zɛ - 'my older brother.'
4. Two special words also exist for "brother" and "sister". /mɔ́nɔgɔ̃/ means 'brother' (either older or younger), but can only be used by a woman. Similarly, /lúlɔ/ can be used only by a man referring to his sister. A woman never calls someone n lúlɔ, and a man never calls someone n mɔ́nɔgɔ̃.

1. Substitution Drill - Family Members

Repeat after your tutor as he points to the appropriate person in the picture on the next page.

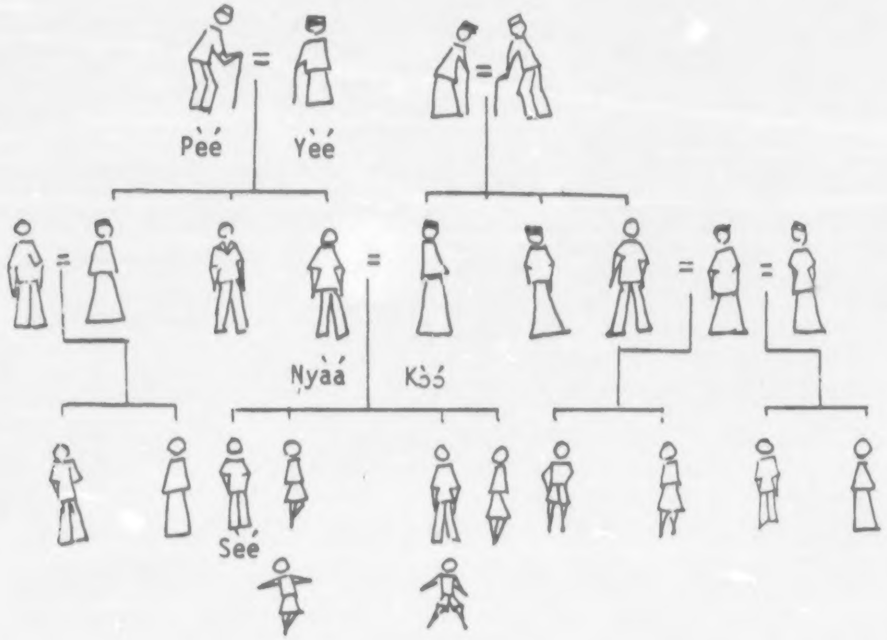
Nyàá à nà lɛ́ e kéa.	This is Nyaa's wife.
gbe	son.
lú, lí	daughter.
dàa	father.
lèe	mother.
lɛ́kɛ	younger brother or sister.
lìi (díé)	older brother or sister.

Sèé à dàa kolo lɛ́ e kéa.	This is Saye's grandfather.
màa	grandmother.
lúlɔ	sister.
Kɔ̀ɔ́ à mɔ́nɔgɔ̃	Kɔɔ's brother.
Pèé à nɛ́ànɛ́	Paye's grandchild.
Yèé à dɛ̃̀	Yee's husband.

2. Question and Answer

Point to the person your tutor indicates. He should combine different names and relationships:

Pɛ̀é à gbe zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show me Paye's son.
Kɔ̀ɔ́ à dàa zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show me Kɔɔ's father.
Gɔ̃́ e kéa à ___ lɛ mɛ́?	Where's this man's ___?
Lee e kéa à ___ lɛ mɛ́?	Where's this woman's ___?



B. Leavetaking Expressions

1. Repetition Drill

Practice these expressions and responses with your tutor.

a.	Statement:	Maà ló.	I must go (lit., I have gone).
	Response:	m̲̀m̀.	Yes, okay.
b.	S:	Maà ló, èé.	Well, I must go.
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	Yes, okay.
c.	S:	Kɔaà ló, (èé).	(Well), we must go.
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	
d.	S:	N ló pìè gbaa.	I'm going now.
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	
e.	S:	I nyiɛ́ kɛ i dìè mɔ̀.	Take care of yourself (used when parting with someone for a while).
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	
f.	S:	Ko làapíé?	Goodbye.
	R:	m̲̀m̀, ko làapíé.	Yes, goodbye.
g.	S:	ɓ̲à lɛ̀ é kpɛ̀i.	Good night (lit., may it dawn at your place).
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	
h.	S:	Ko lɛ̀ é kpɛ̀i.	Good night (lit., may it dawn at our place).
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	
i.	S:	Kóò lo ko kéè gɛ̃̀ɛ̃̀.	See you later (lit., we will see each other.
	R:	m̲̀m̀.	

2. Substitution Drill - Greet (person) for me

M wéé à bà.	Greet him/her for me.
M wéé i dàa bà.	Greet your father for me.
M wéé i lèe bà.	Greet your mother for me.
i lìi díé	your older brother or sister
i lɛ́kɛ	your younger brother or sister
i mìɛnì	your people
i nɔ́ɔ̀	your children

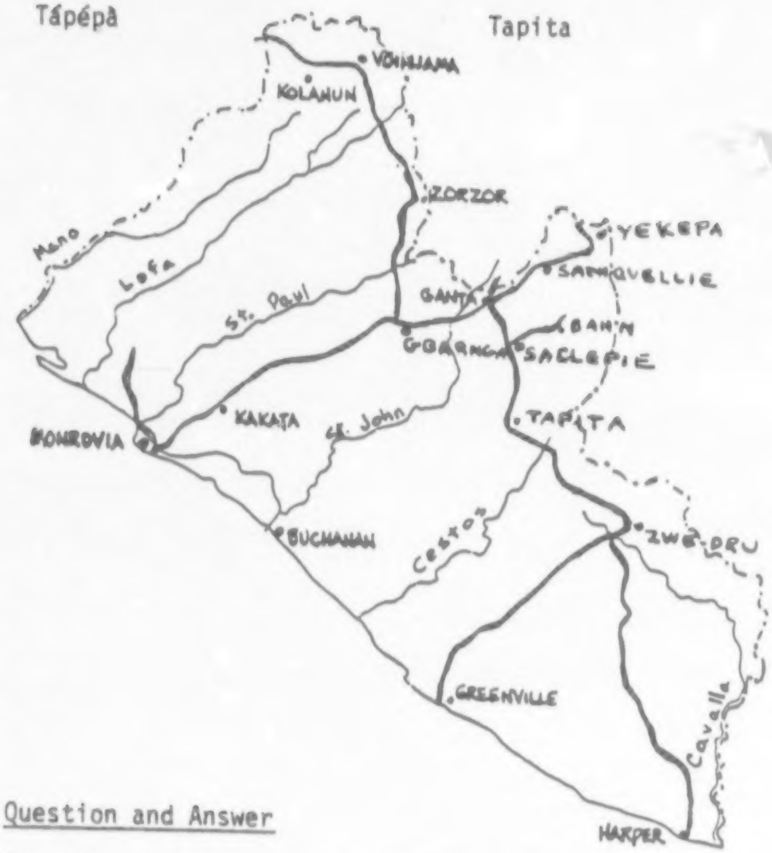
C. Times of Day

1. Substitution Drill

Kóò lo ko kéè gɛ̀ɛ̀ tòò.	I'll see you tomorrow (lit., we'll see each other tomorrow).
Kóò lo ko kéè gɛ̀ɛ̀ nyɛ́nɛyí.	I'll see you this afternoon.
Kóò lo ko kéè gɛ̀ɛ̀ yénàapíé.	I'll see you this evening.
Kóò lo ko kéè gɛ̀ɛ̀ ____.	I'll see you ____.
b̂ímíɛ	night (tonight)
làapíé	morning (this morning)
dìi	day after tomorrow
tòò làapíé	tomorrow morning
tòò nyɛ́nɛyí	tomorrow afternoon
tòò yénàapíé	tomorrow evening
dìi làapíé	day after tomorrow in the morning
dìi nyɛ́nɛyí	day after tomorrow in the afternoon
dìi yénàapíé	day after tomorrow in the evening

D. Mano Town Names

Dukɔ́ɔ̀	Monrovia
Gbăká	Gbarnga
Găăpà, Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà	Ganta
Sɛ̆gbéí	Saniquellie
Yeképà	Yekepa
Saklépíé	Saglepie
Bắ	Bahn
Tápépà	Tapita


VOINJAMA
KOLAHUN
ZORZOR
YEKEPA
SANIQUELLIE
Mano
Lofa
St. Paul
GANTA
BAHN
GBARNGA
SAGLEPIE
KAKATA
St. John
TAPITA
MONROVIA
BUCHANAN
Cestos
ZWEDRU
GREENVILLE
Cavalla
HARPER

1. Question and Answer

Use the map above for the following drills:

a. Ask your tutor the locations of the towns with the phrase,

____ lɛ mɛ́? Where is ____?

b.	Teacher:	I ló pìè mɛ́?	Where are you going?
	Student:	N ló pìè ____.	I am going to ____. (Use the name of a town you have lɛarned.)

c. Have your tutor ask the location of some Mano towns. Show him on the map and respond properly in Mano.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Directed Conversations

Play one role in each of the following situations. Your tutor or another student will play the other role. Give appropriate greetings and goodbyes. Don't try too hard to be clever or original. Concentrate on responding immediately, fluently, and appropriately. This can best be done by using sentences you have already learned.

1. Two friends meet for the first time in the morning.
2. They meet again later in the day.
3. A stranger arrives in the afternoon and greets some townspeople.
4. Two groups of friends pass each other in the evening.
5. A young man comes up to a group of older men who know his father.

B. Dialogues

Write out one of the conversations from the previous exercise. Be sure to include a complete set of greeting and leavetaking expressions.

C. Self-Testing

1. Write the English names of these Liberian towns.
   a. Sɛ̌gbéí ____________________
   b. Dukɔ́ɔ̀ ____________________
   c. Gbăká ____________________
   d. Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà ____________________
   e. Tápépà ____________________

2. Write down the words for as many different family members as you can remember in Mano and English. Check to see if you left any out.

3. Translation

a. I'll see you tomorrow morning.
b. Greet them for me.
c. There he is.
d. Aren't you coming?

V. VOCABULARY LIST

Times of Day

ɓímiɛ...night
dìi...day after tomorrow
làapíé...morning
nyɛ́nɛyí...noon, afternoon
pɛ́nɛɛ...today
tòò...tomorrow

Relatives

dàa kolo...grandfather
gbe...son
lɛ́kɛ...younger brother or sister
lɛ́kɛ gɔ̃zɛ...younger brother
lɛ́kɛ lezɛ...younger sister
lìi(díé)...older brother or sister
lìi gɔ̃zɛ...older brother
lìi lezɛ...older sister
lú, lí...daughter
lúlɔ...sister (used by men only)
mɔ́nɔgɔ̃...brother (used by women)
nɛ́ànɛ́...grandchild (child's child)

Towns

Bã́...Bahn
Dukɔ́ɔ̀...Monrovia
Gããpà, Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà...Ganta
Gbãká...Gbarnga
Saklépíé...Saglepie
Sɛ̃gbéí...Saniquellie
Tápépà...Tapita
Yeképà...Yekepa

Other

ká...house
kaì, kɛì...in, to, from the house
nyɛ́nɛ...farm
nyɛ́nɛi...at, to, from the farm
pɛ́lɛ...town
pɛ́lɛi...in, to, from town
yí...there
zèe...here

LESSON FIVE

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IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Small Talk

Walter:	M ɓɛ́ɛ, ɓaà vùò.	My friend, good morning.
Yàá:	ɓaà vùà? íì Máá́wè gèe?	Good morning. Do you speak Mano?
W:	ḿm̀ Máá́wè gèe ɓɛĩ́ ká. Ma dă pìè nɔ́.	I speak Mano a little bit. I'm just learning it.
Y:	íì Máá́wè gèe sɛ̀. I tɔ́ lɛ dɛĩ̀?	You speak Mano well. What is your name?
W:	óò n sí Walter. óò i sí kpɛ́?	They call me Walter. What is your name?
Y:	óò n sí Yàá. íì gó mɛ́, Walter?	My name is Yaa. Where do you come from, Walter?
W:	ńǹ gó Amɛ́lɛ́kà, kɛ n yàá Sɛ̃gbéí dɛ̀ɛ̀ká.	I come from America, but I live in Saniquellie now.
Y:	Mɛ́ɛ yábó lɛ́ ɓa kɛ?	What work do you do?
W:	N kiizɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀mì ká. Mɛ́ɛ yábɔ́ lɛ́ ɓa kɛ?	I'm a teacher. What do you do?
Y:	ńǹ lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ zèe, Găăpà.	I make market here in Ganta.

Text - Kɔ̀ɔ́

Léé e kéa lɛ máámi ká. óò à sí Kɔ̀ɔ́. Lɛ́ɛ̀ mááwè wà kwíwɛ̀ gèe. Lɛ́ɛ̀ gó Saklépíé, kɛ ye wá yàá yí dɛ̀ɛ̀ká. Lɛ yàá Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà. Lɛ kiikɛìmi ká yí.

This woman is a Mano. She is called Kɔɔ. She speaks Mano and English. She is from Saglepie, but she doesn't live there now. She lives in Ganta. She is a student there.

Questions on Text

1. Léé e kéa à tɔ́ lɛ dɛì?	What is this woman's name?
2. Lɛ́ɛ̀ mááwè gèe?	Does she speak Mano?
3. Lɛ́ɛ̀ gó mɛ́?	Where is she from?
4. Lɛ yàá mɛ́?	Where is she living?
5. Lɛ kiizɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀mì ká?	Is she a teacher?

How to Study a Text

Listen while your tutor reads through the text several times. Don't look at the text yet. Then repeat each line after the tutor until you can say it correctly. After you practice each line, write it down. When you have gone through the whole text, correct your written version.

Now read the text aloud. Practice until you can read it smoothly and correctly.

After you have mastered the material in the lesson, return to the text. Your tutor will read the text again and aske the questions. After answering the questions, record the text and memorize it outside of class.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Personal Names

Mano children are named according to the order of their birth. The only other Liberian people who do this are the Kissi. The lists below show the traditional names for the first through fourth child of either sex. After the fourth child, there are no traditional names.

1. Repetition Drill

1st girl: Kɔ̀ɔ́	1st boy: Sèé
2nd girl: Yàá	2nd boy: Nyàá
3rd girl: Yèé	3rd boy: Pèé
4th girl: Nɔ̀ɔ́	4th boy: Wá

2. Substitution Drill

Practice this sentence with each name.

ó̲ò n sí Sèé.	My name is Saye.

Nyàá.
Pèé.
Wá.
Kɔ̀ɔ́.
Yàá.
Yèé.
Nɔ̀ɔ́.

3. Question and Answer

Practice these two different ways to ask someone's name.

ó̲ò ɨ sí kpɛ́?	What do they call you?
I tɔ́ lɛ dɛȉ?	What (lit., who) is your name?

4. Now determine your Mano name according to the order of your birth. Practice these question/answer pairs, first with the tutor asking the question, then with the students asking.

ó̲ò i sí kpé?

ó̲ò n sí ___________.

I tɔ́ lɛ dɛȉ?

ó̲ò n sí ___________.

B. Present Tense

This tense is used much the same way as the English present tense. Its main uses are to indicate:

1. a state of being true in the present;

Examples:	ń̲ǹ i gɛ̃̀.	I see you.
	ń̲ǹ nàà à ká.	I want it.

2. a permanent state of being;

Examples:	ó̲ò n sí Sèé.	My name is Saye. (lit., They call me Saye.)
	ń̲ǹ kwíwe gee.	I speak English.

3. habitual actions.

Examples:	ń̲ǹ à gɛ̃̀ lúó gbṹũká.	I see him sometimes.
	ń̲ǹ ɓu ɓèlè lúó séíká.	I eat rice every day.

The pronoun set used for the present tense is shown below. Repeat the sentences until you know all the pronouns.

1. Repetition Drill

ń̲ǹ gó Găăpà.	I come from Ganta.
í̲ì gó Găăpà.	You come from Ganta
Lɛ́ɛ̀ gó Găăpà.	He/She/It comes from Ganta.

Kóò gó Găăpà.	We come from Ganta.
Kɔáà gó Găăpà.	We (inc.) come from Ganta.
Káà gó Găăpà.	You (pl.) come from Ganta.
óò gó Găăpà.	They come from Ganta.

In ordinary speech, these pronouns are sometimes pronounced with the final letter omitted.

Examples:	ń gó Găăpà.	I come from Ganta.
	í gó mɛ́?	Where are you from?

Present tense is used with some verbs of motion in circumstances where progressive tense is used in English.

Examples:	ńǹ gó pɛ́lɛi.	I am coming from town.
	íì gó mɛ́?	Where are you coming from?
	ńǹ ló pɛ́lɛi.	I am going to town.

Notice that íì gó mɛ́? can be translated two different ways in English - either 'Where are you from?' or 'Where are you coming from (right now)?'

2. Substitution Drill

Substitute each of the present tense pronouns in the sentences below. Turn to the pictures in lesson 3 and use them as cues. The tutor should point to them in different orders.

____ gó Amɛ́lɛ́kà.	____ is from America.
____ Maa wè gèe.	____ speaks Mano.
____ kwíwè ma.	____ understands English.
____ ló kiikɛì.	____ goes to school.

C. Present Tense - Negative

The positive forms of present tense pronouns are characterized by a High-Low tone pattern. The negative pronouns are identical except that the High-Low pattern is replaced with a Low-High tone pattern.

1. Repetition Drill

ǹ̲ń gó Gǎǎpà.	I don't come from Ganta.
ì̲í gó Gǎǎpà.	You don't come from Ganta.
Lɛ̀ɛ́ gó Gǎǎpà.	He/She doesn't come from Ganta.
Kòó gó Gǎǎpà.	We don't come from Ganta.
Kɔàá gó Gǎǎpà.	We (inc.) don't come from Ganta.
Kàá gó Gǎǎpà.	You (pl.) don't come from Ganta.
ò̲ó gó Gǎǎpà.	They don't come from Ganta.

2. Sound Discrimination Drill - Positive vs. Negative Present Tense

Column I	Column II
Lɛ́ɛ̀ máá wè gèe.	Lɛ̀ɛ́ máá wè gèe.
ń̲ǹ máá wè ma.	ǹ̲ń máá wè ma.
ó̲ò lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ.	ò̲ó lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ.
í̲ì kwí wè gèe.	ì̲í kwí wè gèe.
Kóò gó zèe.	Kòó gó zèe.

3. Question and Answer

Q: í̲ì máá wè ma?	Do you understand Mano?
A: m̲̀m̀, ḿm̀ máá wè ma ɓɛ́íká.	Yes, I understand Mano a little.
Q: Lɛ́ɛ̀ kwí wè gèe sɛ̀?	Does he speak English well?
A: m̲̀m̀, lɛ́ɛ̀ kwí wè gèe sɛ̀.	Yes, he speaks English well.
A: Gbàaò, lɛ̀ɛ́ kwí wè gèe sɛ̀.	No, he doesn't speak English well.
Q: ì̲í gbàlà wè gèe?	You don't speak Kpelle?
A: m̲̀m̀, ǹń gbàlà wè gèe.	Yes, I don't speak Kpelle.
A: Gbàaò, ńǹ gbàlà wè gèe ɓɛ́íká.	No, I speak Kpelle a little.

Continue, with your tutor asking similar questions. Vary the pronouns and language names used, and also alternate between yes and no answers.

D. Equative Sentences

We have seen sentences like lɛ máámi ká earlier. This same pattern can be used to identify a person in other ways as well.

Examples:	ŋ kiizɔ̀ɔ̀mì ká.	I am a teacher.
	I dàa lɛ dɔmì ká.	Your father is a chief.

These sentences consist of a subject, with a pronoun taken from the set used for progressive tense, and a descriptive noun followed by ká.

1. Repetition Drill

ŋ kwí púlú ká.	I am a white man.
I kwí púlú ká.	You are a white man.
Lɛ kwí púlú ká.	He/She is a white person.
Ko kwí púlú ká.	We are white men.
Kɔa kwí púlú ká.	We (inc.) are white men.
Ka kwí púlú ká.	You are white men.
O kwí púlú ká.	They are white men.

The negative is formed by adding wá and using a pronoun from the negative progressive set.

2. Repetition Drill

Ma wá máámi ká.	I am not a Mano.
ɓi wá máámi ká.	You are not a Mano.
Ye wá máámi ká.	He/She is not a Mano.
Ko wá máámi ká.	We are not Mano.
Kɔa wá máámi ká.	We (inc.) are not Mano.
Ka wá máámi ká.	You (pl.) are not Mano.
O wá máámi ká.	They are not Mano.

E. Plurals

Most Mano nouns are the same when referring to a single thing or a group. There is no plural suffix like the /-s/ of English.

Examples:	Bàá lɛ.	means 'It's a shoe.' or 'They are shoes.'
	ŋ̱ kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́ lɛ́ e kéa.	" 'This is my finger.' or 'These are my fingers.'

However, a small group of words, mostly referring to people, have plural forms:

mi	'person'	mia	'people'
máámi	'Mano'	máámia	'Manos'
___mi	'___ person'	___mia	'___ people'
gɔ̃	'man'	gɔ̃à	'men'
lee	'woman'	loà	'wɔmen'
nɛ́, nɛ́fú	'child'	nɔ́ɔ̀, nɔ́ɔ̀be	'children'
ɓɛ́ɛ	'friend'	ɓɛ́ɛni	'friends'
		mı̀ɛ̀nı̀	'people, family, ethnic group'

1. Transformation

Change the sentences from singular to plural.

Lɛ máámi ká.	He is a Mano.
O máámia ká.	They are Manos.
Lɛ gɔ̃ ká.	He is a man.
O gɔ̃à ká.	They are men.
Lɛ lee ká.	She is a woman.
____________________.	They are women.
Lɛ nɛ́fú ká.	He is a child.
____________________.	They are children.

Lɛ m ɓɛ́ɛ ká.	She is my friend.
________________________.	They are my friends.
Lɛ gbɔ̃́ɔ̃́mi ká.	He is a Bassa.
________________________.	They are Bassas.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. Ethnic Groups

Mano uses separate words for a people and for their language.

máámí	a Mano	mááwè	the Mano language
kwími	a civilized person	kwíwè	English
kwí púlú	a white person		
gbàlàmi	a Kpelle	gbàlàwè	the Kpelle language
gὲεmi	a Gio	gὲεwè	the Gio language
meemi	a Mandingo	meewè	the Mandingo language
kúnúmi	a Kru	kúnúwè	the Kru language
gbɔ̃́ɔ̃́mi	a Bassa	gbɔ̃́ɔ̃́wè	the Bassa language
túámi	a Loma	túáwè	tne Loma language

1. Substitution Drill

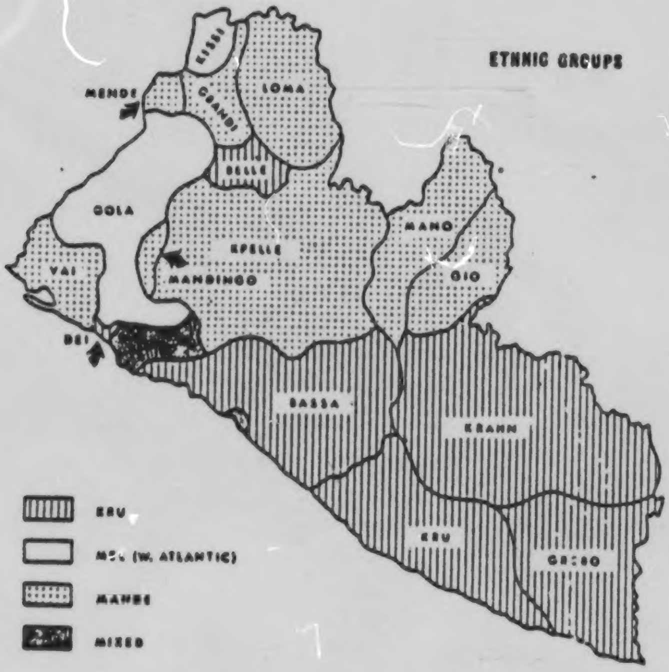
Use the words presented above for this drill.

a. Lε máámi ká.	He is a Mano.
kwími	a civilized person.
b. Lέὲ mááwè gèe.	He speaks Mano.
gbàlàwè	Kpelle.
c. Lέὲ mááwè ma.	He understands (hears) Mano.
gὲεwè	Gio.

2. Question and Answer

Practice these question/answer pairs, using the map below to give you cues for the answers.

a. Mɛ́ɛ wè lɛ́ ba gèe?	What language(s) do you speak?
ń̲ǹ ____ wè gèe.	I speak ____.
b. Mɛ́ɛ wè lɛ́ ba ma?	What language(s) do you understand?
ń̲ǹ ____ ma.	I understand ____.
c. I mia lɛ dɛĩ̀?	Who are your people?
N ____ ká.	I am a ____.


ETHNIC GROUPS
KISSI
MENDE
GBANDI
LOMA
BELLE
GOLA
KPELLE
MANDINGO
VAI
DEI
MANO
GIO
BASSA
KRAHN
KRU
GREBO
KRU
MEL (W. ATLANTIC)
MANDE
MIXED

B. Other Countries

1. Substitution Drill

ń̲ǹ gó Gbăká.	I come from Gbarnga.
Găăpà.	Ganta.
Dukɔ́ɔ̀.	Monrovia.
Laabííà.	Liberia.
Áfli kɔ́ɔ̀.	Ivory Coast.
Flítaŭ.	Sierra Leone.
Gíní.	Guinea.
Amɛ́lɛ́kà.	America.

2. Question and Answer

í̲ì gó mɛ́(ɛ zàá)?	Where are you from?
ńǹ gó ____.	I'm from ____.

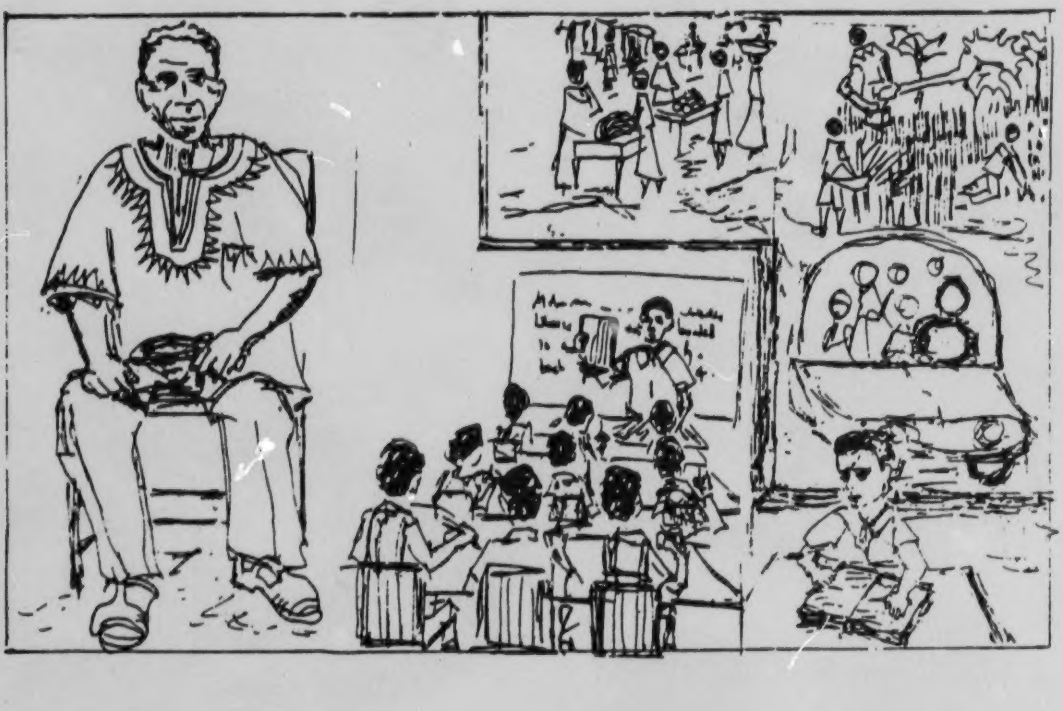
C. Occupations

1. Picture Drill

Use the pictures below to learn these occupations.

Lɛ dɔmì ká.	He is a chief/rich man.
Lɛ nyɛ́nɛkɛmì ká. or	He is a farmer.
Lɛ nyínɛkɛmì ká.	
Lɛ káàtámì ká.	He is a driver.
Lɛ kiikɛìmì ká.	He is a student.
Lɛ kiizɔ̀ɔ̀mì ká.	He is a teacher.
Lɛ lɔ́ɔ́dɔmì ká.	He is a trader.

Repeat with other pronouns: N dɔmì ká., I dɔmì ká., etc.



2. Transformation: Equative - Present Tense

a.	ŋ̱ kiizɔ̀ɔ̀mì ká.	I am a teacher.
	ŋ̱́ŋ̀ kii zɔ̀ɔ̀.	I teach.
b.	Í̱ì lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ.	You trade.
	I lɔ́ɔ́dɔmì ká.	You are a trader.
c.	Í̱ì káà tá.	You drive.
	____________________.	You are a driver.
d.	ó̱ò ló kii kɛì.	They go to school.
	____________________.	They are students.
e.	Lɛ nyɛ́nɛkɛmì ká.	He is a farmer.
	____________________.	He farms.
f.	Káà káà tá.	You (pl.) drive.
	____________________.	You are drivers.
g.	ŋ̱ kiikɛìmí ká.	I am a student.
	____________________.	I go to school.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Ask two or three people their name, where they are from, what languages they know, and what their job is, using only Mano.

B. Write a short text describing someone you know. After it has been corrected by your tutor, memorize it.

V VOCABULARY LIST

Ethnic Groups

(must be combined with /wè/ - language - or /mi/ - person)

gɛ́ɛ...Gio

gbàlà...Kpelle

gbɔ̃́ɔ̃́...Bassa

kúnú...Kru

kwí...'civilized'

kwí púlú...white man (not used with /wè/ or /mi/)

kwíwè...English

máá...Mano

mee...Mandingo

túá...Loma

Other

ɓɛ́í...a little bit

dɔmì...chief

gɔ̃à...men

káàtámì...driver

kiikɛ̀ìmi...student

kiizɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀mì...teacher

loà...women

lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ...to sell, make market

lɔ́ɔ́dɔmì...trader

nɔ́...just, only

nyɛ́nɛkɛmì...farmer

sɛ̀...good, well

tɔ́...name

Countries

Áflì kɔ́ɔ̀...Ivory Coast

Amɛ́lɛ́kà...America

Flítaũ...Sierra Leone (Freetown)

Gíní...Guinea

Labííà...Liberia

Phrases

óò i sí kpɛ?...What is your name?

I tɔ́ lɛ dɛĩ̀?...What is your name?

óò A sí B...A is called B.

I yàá mɛ́?...Where do you live?

........................LESSON SIX..........................

I. OBJECTIVES

This is a summary of what you should know so far. If you have trouble with any of these objectives, turn back to the appropriate section and review it. The self-test following this should help you find out what you do and don't know.

A. Grammatical Objectives	Lesson
1. Demonstrative sentences	2
2. Identifying sentences	2
3. Locative sentences	4
4. Equative sentences	5
5. Progressive tense	3, 4
6. Present tense	5
7. Inalienable possessives	2
8. Alienable possessives	3
9. Plurals	5
B. Communicative Objectives	
1. Greetings and Farewells	1, 2, 3, 4
2. Useful phrases (say it again, etc.)	1
3. Classroom objects	1
4. Clothes	2
5. Body parts	1, 2
6. Parts of a room	2
7. Terms of address	3
8. Some common activities	3
9. Family members	4
10. Time of day	4
11. Some Mano town names	4
12. Personal names	5
13. Ethnic Groups and Countries	5
14. Some occupations	5
C. Sound System	
1. Mano Alphabet	1
2. Vowels	1
a. Nasal vowels	2
b. Vowel length	2
3. Consonants	2
4. Nasal consonants	3
5. Tones	1

	Lesson
6. Rising and Falling Tones	3
7. Intonation	
a. Question	2
b. Statement	2
c. Command	3

II. SELF-TEST

A. Write 5 sentences using the following verbs:

1. in the progressive:
   - a. lố
   - b. sí
   - c. kii zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀
   - d. ta
   - e. nu
2. as a statement or command:
   - a. zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀
   - b. lo
   - c. gèe
   - d. yà
   - e. nu
3. in the present:
   - a. gèe
   - b. gó
   - c. ló
   - d. zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀
   - e. ta

B. Write a sentence using each of the following after giving the meaning of each word:

1. màa ______________________________

2. kii ______________________________

3. kɔ̀ ______________________________

4. pɛ́nɛɛ ______________________________

5. dɛ̀ɛ̀ká ______________________________

6. wè ______________________________

7. lɛ ______________________________

8. tɔ́ ______________________________

9. nɔ́ ______________________________

10. nu ______________________________

C. Greetings: First, respond orally to the tutor when he asks these questions, then write your answers.

1. ko mà i píé? ______________________________

2. îì gó mɛ́? ______________________________

3. bi wá ló pìè pɛ́nɛɛ? ______________________________

4. tɔ́ la dɛī? ______________________________

5. mɛ́ɛ yábó lɛ́ ɓa kɛ? ______________________________

D. Dictation: Have your tutor read the dialogue from lessons 3 or 4. Have the tutor read the entire dialogue once. Then, as the tutor reads each sentence write what you hear as well as you can. Then compare to the book. Do this until you get it all correct.

LESSON SEVEN

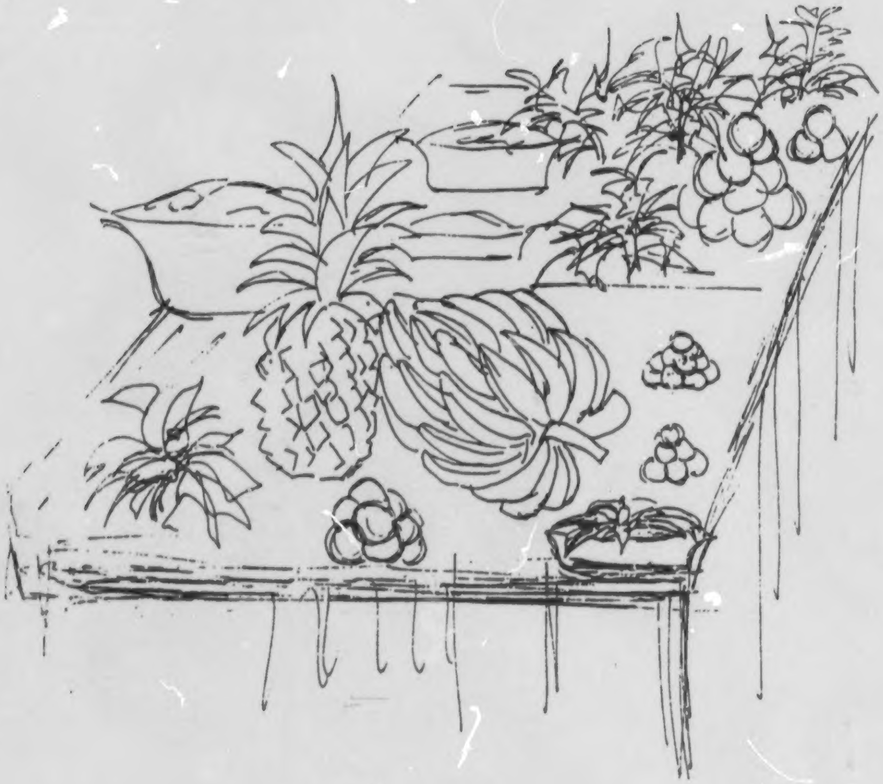


TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. TEXTS

II. GRAMMAR, DRILLS, AND CULTURAL NOTES - Postpositions; Definite Article; Adjectives

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING - Colors; To have; Fruits; Common Animals; Numbers 1-10; wà - 'and'

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Where is the food?

A.	Léɓèlé wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ i kɛ̀lɛ̀?	How much food do you have?
B.	ɓ̱u lɛ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀, wà kpã̀ã́, wà béì lɛ́ɛ́.	I have rice, and fish, and cassava greens.
A.	Nyɔ́nɔ́ lɛ yí?	Is there oil?
B.	m̱̀m̱̀, nyɔ́nɔ́ lɛ zèe, kíli.	Yes, there's oil here, too.
A.	ṉ̀ń kpã̀ã́ gɛ̃̀.	I don't see any fish.
B.	Lɛ pánì yí, béì lɛ́ɛ́ wìì.	It's in the pan, under the cassava leaf.
A.	Kpã̀ã́ã̀ lɛ kogbùòzæ?	Is there a lot of fish? (Is the fish plenty?)
B.	Kpã̀ã́ lɛ doó nɔ́.	There's only one fish.
A.	Ló lɔ́ɔ́ yí í kpã̀ã́ gɓùò lɔ́ zéì.	Go to the market and buy another big fish.

Text - Lee wà Nɛ́fú

Lee wà nɛ́fú o zèe. óò gó lɔ́ɔ́ yí. O pánì sí pìà. Lééa lɛ gbùò. Lɛ pánì gbùò sí pìà. Là pánì lɛ gbínì. Nɛ́fúa là pánì wá gbínì. Pɔ̀ɔ̀ kpǎkpà wá à yí, ɓii nɛ́fúa wá gbùò. Lɛ pɛí̀.

A woman and a child are here. They are coming from the market. They are carrying pans. The woman is big. She is carrying a big pan. Her pan is heavy. The child's pan is not heavy. Not many things are in it because the child is not big. She is small.

Questions

1. Dɛì̀ lɛ́ o gó lɔ́ɔ́ yí?	Who is coming from the market?
2. Mɛ́ ɛ o kɛ̀lɛ̀?	What do they have?
3. ò pánì lɛ gbùò?	Are their pans heavy?
4. Pɔɔ̀ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ o nɛ́fúa là pánì yí?	How many things are in the child's pan?

II. GRAMMAR, DRILLS AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Postpositions

The Mano equivalents of words like 'in', 'on', 'beside' are expressed by words called postpositions, which come after the noun they modify:

tébò là	'on the table'
tébò wìì	'under the table'
tébò sɔ́nɔ́	'next to the table'

Many of these postpositions can also be nouns designating parts of the body:

mɛi	'behind; the back'
sɛ́í	'by the side of; the side (of the body)'

Phrases formed from a noun and a postposition occur in the same place in the sentence as other locative expressions.

lɛ tébò là.	It's on the table
lɛ lópìè káa mɛi.	He's going behind the house.
lɛ yàá káa lɔ̃.	He's sitting in front of the house.

1. Repetition Drill

lɛ tébò là.	It's on the table.
lɛ tébò wìì.	It's under the table.
lɛ tébò sɔ́nɔ́.	It's next to the table.
lɛ tébò lié.	It's in front of the table.
lɛ tébò lɔ̃.	It's in front of the table
lɛ tébò mɛi.	It's behind the table.
lɛ ǹ nyúfà yí.	It's in my pocket.

2. Question and Answer

Answer the question using the cue supplied below it.

Mɛ́ e tébò là?	What is on the table?
Kiilɛ́ɛ́ ________________.	Paper
Mɛ́ e ɓà nyúfâ yí?	What is in your pocket?
N kɔ̃̀________________.	My hand
Mɛ́ e káa mɛi?	What is behind the house?
Gbã́ ________________.	A dog
Dɛĩ̀ lɛ́ e yàá káa lɔ̃?	Who is sitting in front of the house?
Lekpáà ________________.	An old woman
Dɛĩ̀ lɛ́ e kaì?	Who is in the house?
Ko lèe ________________.	Our mother

3. Action Drill - Postpositions

A.	Kii kpɔ́ tébò là.	Lay the book on the table.
	Pɛ̃́nsù kpɔ́ kii líé (kii lɔ̃).	Lay the pencil in front of the book.
	à kpɔ́ kii mɛi.	Lay it behind the book.
	à kpɔ́ kii wìì.	Lay it under the book.
	Pɛ̃́nsù sí kii lalɛ́i.	Hold the pencil over the book
	à kpɔ́ kii sɔ́nɔ́.	Put it next to the book.

B. Place a number of different fruits, or other objects which the student has learned, on a table. The tutor will direct the student to put them in various places, using commands similar to the ones above.

B. Definite Article

The suffix -a when added to a Mano noun can be roughly translated as 'the'. It is used to show that a specific individual, or item, is being referred to. However, the correspondence is not exact, since -a does not appear in many cases when the English 'the' would be used. For example, words for which there is only one possible referent, such as 'sun' and 'moon' take 'the' in English. The equivalent Mano words occur without the definite suffix.

Example: Nyɛ́nɛ lɛ gágà. 'The sun is hot.'

The definite suffix in Mano sometimes occurs on a word which has been referred to previously in the same conversation. Its most common usage is with a noun modified by an adjective or relative clause.

Example: pɛ́ e kéa 'this thing' (lit., the thing which is here)

The definite suffix is always the last item in the noun phrase.

The pronunciation of this suffix varies depending on the vowel it follows. In all dialects it usually appears as -ɛ after ɛ, and -ɔ after ɔ (see examples in Drill below). For some speakers it changes to -ɛ after i, and e as well, and to -ɔ after u and o. Also, the definite suffix is nasalized after a nasal vowel.

1. Pronunciation Drill

Repeat these noun stems and their definite forms after your tutor:

i:	dìì	'cow'	dììa, dììɛ	'the cow'
	yíí	'water'	yíía, yííɛ	'the water'
e:	lee	'woman'	lééa, lééɛ	'the woman'
	léɓèlè	'food'	léɓèlèa, léɓèlèɛ	'the food'
ɛ:	lɛ́ɛ́	'leaf'	lɛ́ɛ́ɛ (lɛ́ɛ́a)	'the leaf'
	gɛ̀lɛ̀	'rock'	gɛ̀lɛ̀ɛ (gɛ̀lɛ̀a)	'the rock'
a:	gbã́	'dog'	gbã́ã	'the dog'
	bàá	'shoe'	bàáa	'the shoe'

ɔ:	gɔ̃	'man	gɔ̃́ɔ̃ (gɔ̃́a)	'the man'
	ɓɔ́ɔ́	'ring'	ɓɔ́ɔ́ɔ (ɓɔ́ɔ́a)	'the ring'
o:	bólù	'banana'	bólòa, bólòɔ	'the banana'
	ɓò	'goat'	ɓòa, ɓòɔ	'the goat'
u:	ɓu	'rice'	ɓúa, ɓúɔ	'the rice'
	gùlù	'hole'	gùlùa, gùlùɔ	'the hole'

The presence of the definite suffix causes nouns with mid tone to change to high tone.

ɓu	'rice'	ɓúɔ	'the rice'
lee	'woman'	lééa	'the woman'
pɛ	'thing'	pɛ́ɛ	'the thing'
ɓa	'sore'	ɓáa	'the sore'

This change takes place even if there is another word between the noun and the definite suffix.

Example: pɛ́ e yía 'that thing'

2. Transformation Drill

When your tutor reads the nouns in this list, respond with the definite form:

Set I		Set II	
wĩĩ	'animal'	gɔ̃	'man'
ɓɔ̀	'pig'	tóó	'ear'
ɓáá	'sheep'	kii	'book'
ze	'beans'	kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́	'finger'
nyu	'nose'	lee	'woman'
kpȁá	'fish'	tíé	'light, fire'
nyɔ́nɔ́	'oil'	ɓòolɛ́ɛ́	'greens'
sàkpà	'slippers'		

C. Adjectives

Mano adjectives may be used in two ways:

1) occurring immediately after the noun which they modify:

Examples:	tɔ̀ɔ̃ púlúɔ	'the white chicken'
	kpàá gbùò	'a big fish'
	kii gbínì	'a heavy book'

2) as the predicate of a sentence:

Examples:	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ɔ lɛ púlú.	'The chicken is white.'
	I gbùò.	'You are big.'
	Ye wá gbùò.	'He is not big.'

When used as predicates, they take the same set of subject pronouns used with progressive tense, equative sentences, and locative sentences, both in the positive and negative.

With a few exceptions, there is no difference in the form of an adjective used in these two different ways. One exception is the word for 'good', which is yíè as a noun modifier and sɛ̀ as a predicate.

Examples:	Lɛ gɔ̃ yíè ká.	'He is a good man.'
	Gɛ̃́ɔ̃ lɛ sɛ̀.	'The man is good/well.'

1. Transformation Drill

a.	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ɔ lɛ púlú.	The chicken is white.
	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ púlú lɛ.	It's a white chicken.
b.	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ɔ wá púlú.	The chicken is not white.
	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ púlú wá.	It's not a white chicken.
c.	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ɔ lɛ sɛ̀.	The chicken is good.
	Tɔ̀ɔ̃ yíe lɛ.	It's a good chicken.

d. Tɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ lɛ gbùò.	The chicken is big.
____________________.	It's a big chicken.
e. Tɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ lɛ zóló.	The chicken is red.
____________________.	It's a red chicken.
f. Tɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ wá gbùò.	The chicken is not big.
____________________.	It's not a big chicken.
g. Tɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ lɛ pɛí.	The chicken is small.
____________________.	It's a small chicken.
h. Tɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ lɛ yɔ́ɔ̀.	The chicken is bad.
____________________.	It's a bad chicken.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. Colors

After practicing the question and answers below with your tutor, have him point to various objects and ask what color they are. You should note that the Mano color words do not correspond exactly to their English equivalents. The word zóló, for instance, covers a much wider range than any one English color word.

Q.	à nyìɛ lɛ kpɛ?	What color is it? (Its color is how?)
A.	Lɛ púlú.	It's white.
	Lɛ tii.	It's black (dark).
	Lɛ zóló.	It's red (yellow, orange).
	Lɛ gàlàyízɛ.	It's blue.
	Lɛ béìlɛ́ɛ́yízɛ.	It's green (cassava leaf color).

B. To Have

The expression used to show ownership or possession of something is shown below, where X is the thing possessed, and Y is the possessor. This expression literally means X is in the palm of Y's hand.

X lɛ Y kɛ̀lɛ̀.	'Y has X.'
X wá Y kɛ̀lɛ̀.	'Y doesn't have X.'

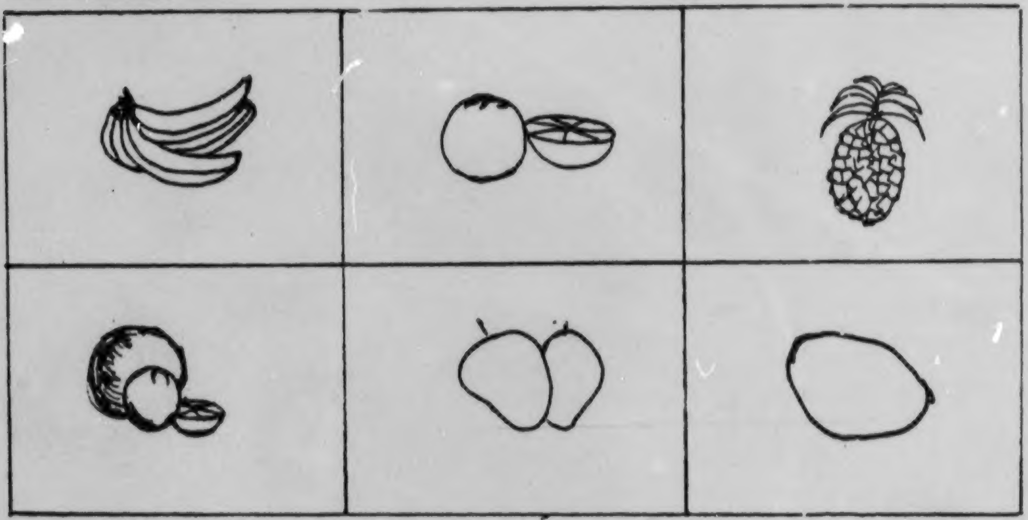
Y consists of an optional noun and an inalienable possessive pronoun.

Bólò lɛ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	'I have a banana.'
Dálà lɛ Sèé à kɛ̀lɛ̀.	'See has a dollar.'
Kii ekéa wá i kɛ̀lɛ̀.	'You don't have that book.

1. Repetition Drill

Bólò lɛ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I have a banana.
Bólò lɛ i kɛ̀lɛ̀.	You have a banana.
Bólò lɛ à kɛ̀lɛ̀. (Bólò là kɛ̀lɛ̀.)	He/She has a banana.
Bólò lɛ ko kɛ̀lɛ̀.	We (inc.) have a banana.
Bólò lɛ kɔa kɛ̀lɛ̀.	We (excl.) have a banana.
Bólò lɛ ka kɛ̀lɛ̀.	You (pl.) have a banana.
Bólò lɛ o kɛ̀lɛ̀.	They have a banana.

C. Fruits



1. bólò
2. gɛ̃ĩ
3. kwítóṹ
4. gléfù
5. plɔ̃́ɔ̃̀
6. gbã́ã̀gɛ̃

1. Identification

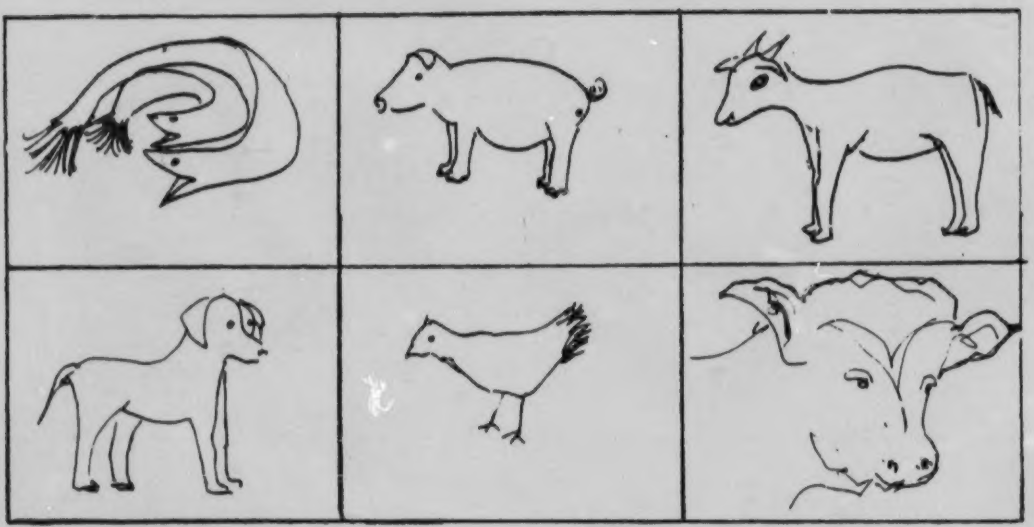
Learn these new words using this substition frame:

________ lɛ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀. I have a ____________.

2. Question and Answer

Mɛ́ e i kɛ̀lɛ̀?	What do you have?
________ lɛ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I have a ____________.

D. Common Animals



1. kpã́ã́
2. ɓɔ̀
3. ɓò
4. gbã́
5. tɔ̀ɔ̀
6. dìì

1. Identification

Learn the names of these animals by using the substition frame:

__________ wá ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.　　　　I don't have a __________.

2. Question and Answer

Your tutor asks the question, filling in any of the words just learned. Answer yes or no, depending on whether he is pointing to the animal or fruit just named.

________ lɛ́ i kɛ̀lɛ̀?
Gbȁaò, ______ wá ŋ kɛlɛ. ...or
m̀m̀, _______ lɛ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.

E. Numbers 1-10

Numbers, like other adjectives, go after the noun they modify. If there are other adjectives modifying the noun the number is generally last.

Examples:	tɔ̀ɔ̀ pɛ̀ɛ̀tɛ	'two chickens'
	tɔ̀ɔ̀ púlú pèètɛ	'two white chickens'.

A number may occasionally occur in predicate position.

Example:	Kpã̀ã́ lɛ doó.	'There is one fish.'

1. Drill

Repeat these numbers after your tutor until you can say them correctly. Then memorize them by counting from 1 to 10. You should continue this outside of class until you can count as fast in Mano as in English.

doó	'one'
pèètɛ, pèèlɛ	'two'
yààka	'three'
yììsɛ	'four'
sɔ́ɔ́li	'five'
sáláádo	'six'
sálápèèlɛ	'seven'
sálààka	'eight'
sɛ́lɛ̀isɛ	'nine'
vũ̀ doó	'ten'

2. Wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ - How many? Repetition Drill

Pɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ yî?	How many things are there?
Pɛ sɔ́ɔ́lí lɛ yí.	There are five things there.
Tɔ̀ɔ̀ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ i kɛ̀lɛ̀?	How many chickens do you have?
Tɔ̀ɔ̀ sɛ́lɛ̀isɛ lɛ́ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I have nine chickens.

I nɔ́ɔ̀ lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How many children do you have?
O yīīsɛ.	There are four (of them).
fì kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ gɛ̃̀?	How many fingers do you see?
ń̲ǹ̲ kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́ doó gɛ̃̀.	I see one finger.

3. Question and Answer

Get 10 small stones or some other small items, or use your fingers. Your tutor will show you from 1 to 10 of them and ask Wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ yí? or fì (item) wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ gɛ̃̀? Give the correct answer in Mano. Continue for several minutes until you can answer without delay.

F. wà - 'and'

There is no single Mano word with the full range of usages that belong to the English 'and'. There are several different ways of linking sentences in Mano that correspond to different meanings of 'and' in English. These will be discussed in later lessons.

The dialog in this lesson has an example of the Mano word, wà, used to link together nouns or noun phrases. Two nouns joined by wà may appear anywhere that a single noun may.

Examples:	ń̲ǹ gɔ̃ wà lee gɛ̃̀.	'I see a man and a woman.'
	Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ wà lééa o nu plèè zèe.	'The man and the woman are coming here.'
	n̲n nàà gɛ̃́ɛ̃ wà bólò kɛ̃́.	'I want oranges and bananas.'

If the list of nouns is long, all but the first may be moved to the end of the sentence.

Example: Nyɔ́nɔ́ lɛ yí, wà súò wà ɓu. 'There is oil, and pepper and rice.'

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Have your tutor read the text aloud and write it as a dictation. Correct your version with your tutor.

B. Write a description of your room, where you work, or some other place you are familiar with. Tell what things are in it, where they are, what they are like. Correct it with your tutor.

C. Make a list of five new adjectives you would like to know. Find out how to say them from your tutor and write several sentences using each new word you have learned.

V. VOCABULARY LIST

Nouns

béì, bóì...cassava
béì lɛ́ɛ́...cassava greens
bólò...banana
ɓò...goat
ɓɔ̂...pig
ɓu...rice
dìì...cow
gɛ̃́ì...orange
gléfù...grapefruit
gbâ...dog
gbã́ã̀gɛ̃...pawpaw (papaya)
kwítóṹ...pineapple
kpã̀ã́...fish
léɓèlè...food
nyɔ́nɔ́...oil
nyúfà...pocket
pánì...pan
plɔ̃́ɔ̃̀...plum (mango)
tɔ̀ɔ̀...chicken

Adjectives

béìlɛ́ɛ́yízɛ...green
gàlàyízɛ...blue
gbínì (gbílì)...heavy
gbùò...big
kogbùòzɛ...plenty
kpã́kpã̀...not many
pɛî...small
púlú...white
sɛ̀...good, well
tii...black
yíe...good (used only after noun)
yɔ́ɔ̀...bad, badly
zóló...red, yellow

Postpositions

là...on, at
lɛí...above
líé, lɔ̃...in front of
mɛi...behind
sɔ́nɔ́...next to
wìì...under
yí...in, inside

Numbers

doó...one
pèèlɛ, pèètɛ...two
yààka...three
yììsɛ...four
sɔ́ɔ́li...five
sáláádo...six
sálápèèlɛ...seven
sálààka...eight
sɛ́lɛ́isɛ...nine
vũ doó...ten

Others

ɓii...because
gɛ̃̀...to see
kíli...also, thus
lɔ́...to buy
nɔ́ ...only
sí...to carry, to take
wà...and (used only with nouns)
wɛ̀ɛɛ̀...how much, how many
zeí...again, another

LESSON EIGHT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. TEXTS

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES - Notes on Markets; Past Tense; Negative Past Tense; Past Tense of Non-Verbals

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING - Money; How much is ___?; I want; Vegetables; Containers; The ___ one

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

V: VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - At the Market

Zȁbè: ɓaà vùò.	Customer: Good morning.
Lɔ́ɔ́dɔmì: m̀m̀, ɓaà vùò? Mɛ́ ɓa nàà à ká pɛ́nɛɛ?	Market Seller: Yes, good morning. What do you want today?
Z: ɓà yàba lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	C: How much are your onions?
L: à yé e kéa lɛ nɛî ká. à yé e kéa lɛ sélè doó fɔ́ ká.	M: These are 10 cents. These are 25 cents.
Z: N gba à pɛî doó ká. Súò lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	C: Give me one of the small ones. How much is the pepper?
L: Suo yàà doó fɔ́.	M: One pile for 5 cents.
Z: ńǹ nàà à doó ká.	C: I want one of them.
L: Pɛlèe nu.	M: Bring money.
Z: Fítì sɛ̀ gɛ̀ ɓɛ.	C: Here's 50 cents.
L: ɓà sɛ́sì gɛ̀ ɓɛ.	M: Here's your change.

Text

Sèé e ló lɔ́ɔ́ yí yalá. E mía kogbùòzɛ gɛ̃̀ yí. E kɛ lɔ́ɔ́ lúó ká. Nyɛ́nɛ lùà o kɛ yílíɓɛɛ lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ pìè. O kɛ kwài wà béì lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ pìè. Mee mia o kɛ yí. Sɔ e kɛ o kɛ̀lɛ̀.

Sèé à lèe e dálà pèètɛ nɔ à lɛ̀ɛ. E pɔɔ̀ kéléí-kèlèì lɔ́: pèĩ̀ni, zã̂ɓɛɛni, súò yàà doó, kpã̀ã́ kpáà ɓɛ́ĩ́. Sèé e dálà doó sélè yììsɛ gó yí. Sélè doó e to nɔ́.

Saye went to the market yesterday. He saw a lot of people there. It was market day. Farm women were selling fruit. They were selling firewood and cassavas. There were Mandingos there. They had cloth.

Saye's mother gave him two dollars. He bought small-small things: some bitterball, some okra, a pile of peppers, a little dried fish. Saye spent $1.80 there. Only 20 cents were left.

Questions

1. Sèé e ló mɛ́ɛ zàá?	Where did Saye go?
2. Dɛĩ̀ e kɛ yí?	Who was there?
3. Mɛ́ e kɛ o kɛ̀lɛ̀?	What did they have?
4. Mɛ́ɛ lɛ́ Sèé à kɛ lɔ́ɔ́ yí?	What did Saye do in the market?
5. Pɛlèe wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ a gó yí?	How much money did he spend?

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Notes on Markets

When buying something from a market woman it is polite to say hello first. The American habit of making commercial transactions as impersonal as possible is not acceptable in Liberia.

You should not try and bargain over the prices of staple foods, like rice, greens, dried fish, etc. These are sold at standardized prices, set by the market women's association. The only foods without a standard price are the fruits brought in by the farm women who sell on the open ground next to the stalls. Although prices are fixed, if you are buying a fairly large quantity of something, you can ask the woman to dash you by adding a little extra to your purchase.

B. Past Tense

The subject pronouns used to indicate past tense are shown below. Except for the 3rd person singular, they are the same as the inalienable possessive pronouns. The 3rd person singular, although commonly e, is sometimes pronouned ɛ.

1. Repetition Drill

N 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yí.	I went to the market
I 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yí.	You went to the market
E 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yí.	He/She went to the market.
Ko 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yí.	We (inc.) went to the market.
Kɔa 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yi.	We (excl.) went to the market.
Ka 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yí.	You (pl.) went to the market.
O 1ó 1ɔ́ɔ́ yí.	They went to the market.

2. Substitution Drill

N dálà doó nɔ́ à lɛ̀ɛ.	I gave him a dollar.
E ______________________.	He " .
Ko ______________________.	We " .
I ______________________.	You " .
I pɛlèe gbùò gó yalá.	You spent a lot of money yesterday.
Ka ______________________.	You (pl.) " .
E ______________________.	He " .
N ______________________.	I " .
N léɓèlè lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ o píé.	I sold food to them.
Ko______________________.	We " .
O ______________________.	They " .
E ______________________.	He " .

C. Negative Past Tense

The negative form of the past tense uses the same pronoun set as the negative present tense, followed by the word gbaa.

1. Repetition Drill

ǹń gbaa à lɔ́ á kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I didn't buy it from him.
ìí gbaa à lɔ á kɛ̀lɛ̀.	You didn't buy it from him.
Lɛ̀ɛ́ gbaa à lɔ́ á kɛ̀lɛ̀.	He/She didn't buy it from him.
Kòó gbaa à lɔ́ á kɛ̀lɛ.	We (inc.) didn't buy it from him.
Kɔàá gbaa à lɔ́ á kɛ̀lɛ.	We (excl.) didn't buy it from him.
Kàá gbaa à lɔ́ á kɛlɛ.	You (pl.) didn't buy it from him.
òó gbaa à lɔ́ á kɛ̀lɛ̀.	They didn't buy it from him.

2. Transformation

Change these sentences to the negative.

Ma lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ làapíé yí.	I sold it this morning.
ŋ̀ŋ́ gbaa à lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ làapíé yí.	I didn't sell it this morning.
ɓa lɔ́ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	You bought it from me.
ìí gbaa à lɔ́ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	You didn't buy it from me.
O ló Dukɔ́ɔ̀.	They went to Monrovia.
________________________.	They didn't go to Monrovia.
Ko dálà nu lɔ́ɔ́dɔmì lɛ̀ɛ.	We gave a dollar to the market person.
________________________.	
I yà tã̂ã̀.	You sat down.
________________________.	
N gó pɛ́lɛi.	I came from town.
________________________.	

D. Past Tense of Non-Verbal Sentences

By now you have learned several different ways to make sentences without verbs. These include:

1) Locative sentences

Lɛ káà mɛi.	'He is behind the house.'

2) Adjectival sentences

ŋ̀ káa lɛ gbùò.	'My house is big.'

These sentences can be put into the past tense by using a past tense subject pronoun and inserting the verb kɛ, 'to do'.

N kɛ pɛ́lɛi.	'I was in town.'
E kɛ gbùò.	'It was big.' or 'It got big.'

Past progressive sentences can be formed in the same way:

Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e kɛ yábó kɛ pìè.	'The man was working.'
N kɛ ló pìè pɛ́lɛi.	'I was going to town.'

1. Transformation Drill

Change from present to past tense:

Lɛ gbùò.	ɛ kɛ gbùò.
Lɛ pɛĩ́.	ɛ kɛ pɛĩ́.
O lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ pìè	O kɛ lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ pìè.
N nu pìè.	________________.
N pʊ́lʊ́.	________________.
Ka tii.	________________.
I n gba pìè pɛ dɔ̃̀ ká.	________________.
Ma sí pìè.	________________.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. Money

Mano uses certain terms for money which are common in a number of Liberian languages, and which come from the British colonial currency in use before the adoption of the American currency system.

fɔ̃́	5 cents (four pence)
nɛí	10 cents (nine pence)
sélè	20 cents (shilling).

The other basic term comes from the American system:

dálà	$1.00.

The terms fɔ̃́, nɛí, and sélè are used mostly for small amounts of money. With larger amounts it is common to use English even in conversations completely in Mono. Thus, fifty cents could be sélè pèètɛ nɛí, but it is more commonly referred to as fítì sɛ̃̀.

However, some people still reckon money in terms of the old British coins. Large amounts are designated as follows: 1) the largest denomination first, 2) followed by a number to show how many coins of that type, 3) followed by smaller coins in order. If there is only one of the smallest denomination, the number may be omitted.

Fill in the blanks with your tutor's help. Then practice counting in 5¢ amounts in Mano.

5¢	fɔ̃́	60¢	
10¢	nɛí	65¢	
15¢	nɛí doó fɔ̃́	70¢	
20¢	sélè	75¢	
25¢	sélè doó fɔ̃́	80¢	
30¢	sélè doó nɛí	85¢	
40¢		90¢	
50¢		95¢	
55¢			

B. How much is (item)?

1. Questions - Repetition

Pɛ́ ekéa lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much is this thing?
à sɔ̃̀ɔ̃́ lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much does it cost?
Wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ?	How much is it?

2. Questions and Answers

Súò yàà lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much is a pile of peppers?
Lɛ sélè ká.	It's twenty cents.
Kpɔ́ɔ́bɛɛ lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much is an eggplant?
Nɛí lɛ.	It's ten cents.
Yàba e kéa à sɔ̃̀ɔ̃́ lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much does this onion cost?
Yàba yààka sélè.	Three onions for a shilling (20¢).
Gɔ lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much is kola?
à yììsɛ nɛí.	Four of them for ten cents.
Zã́bɛɛ lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much is okra?
Yà píe´doó lɛ nɛi doó fɔ̃́ ká.	One pile is fifteen cents.

C. I want (item) - ńǹ nàà (item) ká.

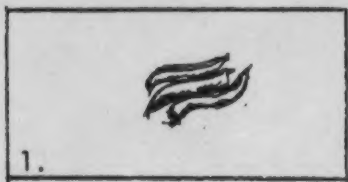
To want and to like are expressed by the same verb in Mano. The noun phrase indicating the object that is desired follows the verb and takes the postposition ká.

1. Repetition

ńǹ nàà à ká.	I want it.
ɓáà nàà à ká.	You want it.
Láà nàà à ká.	He/She wants it
Kóò nàà à ká.	We (inc.) want it.
Kɔáà nàà à ká.	We (excl.) want it.
Káà nàà à ká.	You (pl.) want it.
óò nàà à ká.	They want it.

Note: ɓáà and láà replace ii and lɛ́ɛ̀. All the other subject pronouns are the same as regular present tense.

D. Vegetables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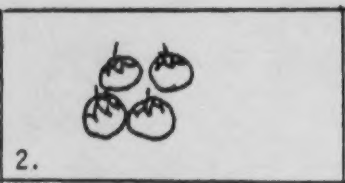
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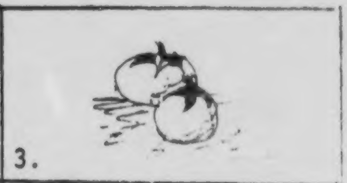
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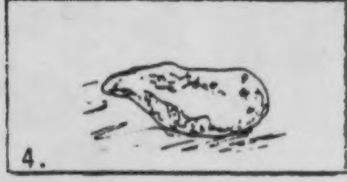
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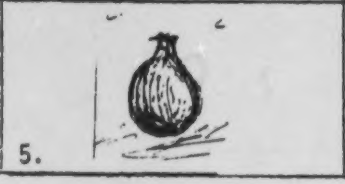
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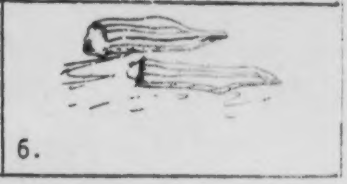
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1. súò
2. pèĩ́
3. kwía pèĩ́
4. kwísóṹ
5. yàba
6. zàɓɛɛ

1. Identification

Learn to identify these vegetables using the following substitution sentences:

ńǹ nàà _____ ká.	'I want _____.'
ɓàà nàà _____ ká.	'You want _____.'
Láà nàà _____ ká.	'He wants _____.'

2. Question and Answer

When your tutor points to a picture and asks the question, give the appropriate reply.

Mɛ́ bà nàà à ká?	What do you want?
ń̀n nàà ______ ká.	I want ______.

E. Containers and Units of Measure

The phrase for an amount of something in Mano simply consists of the word for the thing followed by the word for its container.

ɓu báà	'bag of rice'
bẽ́ĩ lɛ́ɛ́ b̀e	'bundle of cassava greens'
nyɔ́nɔ́ gbòò	'bottle of oil'

Most of the common units of measure used in the market are imprecise. Prices are always divisible by five cents, so sellers of small items insure a fair profit by adjusting the number and quality of items sold as a single unit. A cup of rice, however, is always the same size - about 16 oz. - equal to about two American cups.

These are the most common units of measurement:

kɔ́pù	'cup'
yàà (yàpíé)	'pile'
gbòȍ (gbòò)	'bottle'
ɓe	'bundle'
báà (b̀ɔ̀ɔ́)	'bag'

1. Repetition Drill

N gba nyɔ́nɔ́ kpòò ká.	Give me a bottle of oil.
N gba pèĩ́ yàpíé doó ká.	Give me one pile of bitterballs.
N gba ɓu kɔ́pù pèètɛ ká.	Give me two cups of rice.

N gba zá̋ɓɛɛ yàpíé ká.	Give me a pile of okra.
N gba kwísóúlɛ́ɛ́ ɓe ká.	Give me a bundle of potato greens.
N gba ɓu ɓɔ̀ɔ́ ká.	Give me a bag of rice.
N gba kwàì ɓe ká.	Give me a bundle of firewood.

2. Questions and Answers

ɓu báà wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ ɓa nàà?	How many bags of rice do you want?
ńǹ nàà ɓu báà yààka ká.	I want three bags of rice.
à kpòò wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ ɓa nàà?	How many bottles of it do you want?
ńǹ nàà kpòò doó ká.	I want one bottle.
Yàà wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ ɓa nàà?	How many piles do you want?
ńǹ nàà yàà sáláádo ká.	I want six piles.

3. Continue the exercise using these two frame sentences:

________ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ ɓa nàà?	How many _____ do you want?
ńǹ nàà ______ ______ ká.	I want _____ of _____.

Write down a list of units of food items, e.g., ɓu báà, ɓu kɔ́pù, kwísóú lɛɛ ɓɛ, etc. Write down a list of numbers. When your tutor points to a word in the first list, use it to ask the question. When he points to, or says, a number, give the answer.

F. The (adjective) one - à (adjective) a

An adjective preceded by à and followed by the definite article can be used instead of a noun to mean 'the ____ one.'

Examples:	à púlúɔ	'the white one'
	à pɛ́ìɛ	'the small one'.

A similar construction can be used with numbers:

à doó	'one of them'
à pèèlɛ	'two of them'
à wɛ̀ɛɛ̀	'how many of them' or 'how much of it'

1. Substitution

Kóò nàà à púlúɔ ká.	We want the white one.
tii	black
Kóò nàà à tii a ká.	We want the black one.
zóló	red
Kóò nàà à zóló ká.	We want the red one.
doó	one
Kóò nàà à doó ká.	We want one of them.
sɛ́lɛ́lsɛ	nine
sɔ́ɔ́li	five
pɛí	small
gbùò	big

2. Question and Answer

First, practice the questions below. Then cue the answers to these questions from a list of numbers, and a list of adjectives.

à wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ ɓa nàà?	How many of them do you want?
ńǹ nàà à _______ ká.	I want ______ of them.
à kpɛ lɛ́ ɓa nàà?	Which of them do you want?
ńǹ nàà à ____a ká.	I want the _____ one.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

1. When you go to the market, transact your business as much as possible in Mano. This is one of your best opportunities for using the language, since the context is clearly defined and the ranges of topics limited.

2. Write a paragraph or two about a trip to the market, or something else you did. Use the past tense.

3. Write 3 or 4 sentences using each new verb you have learned. Try possibilities that haven't been given in the lesson:

   Examples: I bought it for ten cents.
   Can you change a dollar?
   He changed.
   He changed me.

   This exercise can be carried out with any new words you learn, or to review old vocabulary. It should be one of your basic tools for study and review from now on.

4. Directed Conversation

   Get together a number of small food items and other things which might be bought at the market and place them on a table. The more you have, the better the exercise will be. Also collect a fair amount of change.

   First, the student should take the role of a buyer and the tutor that of the seller. After a while, the roles should be reversed. Make the exercise as real as possible. When you buy something, pick it up and put it in your bag. Pay for it with real coins, get the correct change, etc.

V. VOCABULARY

ɓe...bunch, bundle
ɓɔ̃ɔ́ (báà)...bag
dálà...dollar
fɔ̃́...5 cents
__ gó...spend __
A gba B ká...give B to A
gbòù̃ (gbòò)...bottle
kéléí-kèlèì...small-small
kɔ́pù...cup
kwài...firewood
kwía pèĩ́...tomato
kwí sóṹ...(sweet) potato
lɔ́ɔ́...market
lɔ́ɔ́ lúó...market day, Saturday
lɔ́ɔ́dɔmi...market seller
nàà __ ká...to want __
nɛí...ten cents
-ni...some, a few (attached as suffix)
A nu (nɔ́) B lɛ̃̀ɛ...give A to B
pèĩ́...bitterball
pɛlèe...money
sélè...20 cents
sɛ̃̀...cent
sɛ̃́sì...change (noun)
sɔ...cloth
sɔ̃̀ɔ̃́...price, cost
súò...pepper
to...to remain
yàà, yàpìé...pile
yàba...onion
yalá...yesterday
yilíɓɛɛ...fruit

zã̀bè...customer
zã́ɓɛɛ...okra

..........................LESSON NINE..............................

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V. VOCABULARY

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Bargaining

Zǎbè: M ɓɛ́ɛ, i túó.	My friend, good afternoon.
Lɔ́ɔ́dɔmì: è̲è, i túá?	Yes, good afternoon.
Z: Gbɔɔ e kéa lɛ ɓù ŋɛ ká?	Is this pot yours?
L: m̲̀m̲̀, m̀ pɛ lɛ.	Yes, it's mine.
Z: Lɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much is it?
L: Dálà sɔ́ɔ́li.	Five dollars.
Z: ó̲, pɛlèe lɛ gbùò. í̲ì gbɔ́ m mɔ̀ dálà ká?	Oh, the price is high. Can you help me one dollar.
L: Zǎbè, m̀ḿ bɛ̀i à mɔ̀.	Customer, I can't do it.
Z: Pɛlèe gbùò wá ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀. à̲ pɛlèe lákǎ.	I don't have much money. (Please) lower the price.
L: O.K., fo sɛvɛ̃ti fáì nu.	O.K., pay $4.75.
Z: ń̲ǹ ló fo twɛni fáì nu.	I will pay $4.25.
L: Fo fíti nu.	Pay $4.50.
Z: M wéé à mɔ̀. í̲ì bɛ̀i à mɔ̀ i dálà vū doó sɛ́sì kɛ?	I agree. Can you change $10.00?

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Bargaining and Bargaining Phrases

The following phrases can only be the first step in learning to bargain. Bargaining is both an art and a recreation, and must be learned through observation and practice.

If you want to learn how to bargain in Mano, you will have to make your own opportunities. Most bargaining is carried out in English, and, in fact, the seller is not likely to be Mano. However, the Mandingo merchants usually know some Mano, so don't be afraid to try out your Mano bargaining phrases.

Some practical advice on bargaining:

1. Learn what prices are negotiable and which are fixed. Generally, everyday purchases have fixed prices, while things that are bought only occasionally can be bargained for. For example, food has a fixed price, but cloth and cooking pots are negotiable. This rule does not apply to things sold in stores, where prices are always fixed.
2. In most bargains, the final price is about halfway between the seller's first price, and the buyer's first price. However, this is because both buyer and seller are aware of the fair price for the item. You will not get a better deal by starting with a ridiculously low price.
3. Most of the art of bargaining comes in knowing where to start the bidding, how fast to raise the price, when to make a new offer, and when to do nothing at all. Most of the pleasure for the good bargainer comes from the verbal byplay involved. Each new offer is usually accompanied by a reason for making the change.

1. Bargaining Phrases

à sɔ̃̀ɔ̃́ lɛ gbùò	the price is (too) high
à pɛlèe lɛ gbùò	the price is too high
à pɛlèe wá gbùò	the price is not high enough
pɛlèe gbùò wá ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀	I don't have much (enough) money
pɛlèe wá ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀	I don't have any money

à pɛlèe lákã́	lower the price
gbɔ̃́ m mɔ̀ ɓɛ́ĩ́ ká	help me small
gbɔ̃́ m mɔ̀ ___ ká	help me (\$X.XX) - i.e., take \$X off the price
\$X nu	pay \$X
ńǹ ló \$X nu	I will pay \$X
pɛlèe nu	bring (your) money
m wéé à mɔ̀	I agree (my word on it)
m wéè laa mɔ̀	"

B. Object Pronoun Contractions - Past Tense

The direct object of a Mano sentence comes between the subject pronoun and the verb. This means that if the direct object is a pronoun, there will be two pronouns in a row - a subject pronoun and an object pronoun.

Examples:	ŋ ka gɛ̀.	I saw you (pl.).
	E ŋ gɛ̀.	He saw me.

Some sequences result in contractions:

n + à = ma(a)	Ma gɛ̀.	I saw him.
n + i = mi(i)	Mi gɛ̀.	I saw you.
n + o = ma o	Ma o gɛ̀.	I saw them.
i + à = ɓa	ɓa gɛ̀.	You saw him.
i + o = ɓɛ o	ɓa o gɛ̀.	You saw them.
e + à = a	A gɛ̀.	She/He saw him/her/it.

These contractions are optional:

ko + i = kwi	Kwi gɛ̀.	We saw you.
ko + a = kwa	Kwa gɛ̀.	We saw her.

1. Substitution Drill

Form sentences from the verbs below by combining a subject pronoun and an object pronoun from the two lists given. You may have your tutor prompt you by pointing to one pronoun in each column.

A B dáàsi kɛ.	A dashed B.
A B gba à ká.	A gave it to B.

Column A		Column B	
n	ko, kɔa	n	ko, kɔa
i	ka	i	ka
e	o	e	o

2. Transformation

Change the nouns into pronouns, forming the proper contracted forms:

ŋ gɔ̃́ɔ̃ gɛ̃̀ yí.	I saw the man there.
Ma gɛ̃̀ yí.	I saw him there.
I gɔ̃́ɔ̃ gɛ̃̀ yí.	You saw the man there.
______________________________.	You saw him there.
E gɔ̃́ɔ̃ gɛ̃̀ yí.	He saw the man there.
______________________________.	He saw him there.
I pɛlèe gba ŋ ká.	You gave money to me.
______________________________.	You gave it to me.
Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ pɛlèe gba ŋ ká.	The man gave me money.
______________________________.	He gave it to me.

3. Question and Answer

Q: ɓa gèe à lɛ̀ɛ?	Did you tell him?
A: m̀m̀, ma gèe à lɛ̀ɛ.	Yes, I told him.
Q: Ma gèe i lɛ̀ɛ?	Did I tell you?
A: m̀m̀, ________________.	Yes, you told me.
Q: ɓa o gɛ̃̀?	Did you see them?
A: ǹm̀, ________________.	Yes, I saw them.
Q: I ŋ gɛ̃̀?	Did you see me?
A: m̀m̀, ________________.	Yes, I saw you.
Q: ɓa lɔ́ Dukɔ́ɔ̀?	Did you buy it in Monrovia?
A: m̀m̀, ________________.	Yes, I bought it in Monrovia.

C. Indirect Objects

In Mano indirect objects are expressed by postpositional phrases. You have already seen examples of this.

E pɛ dò lɔ́ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	He bought something from me.
N à lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ à píé.	I sold it to him.

There is no simple correspondence between English and Mano in terms of marking indirect objects. In the examples below, the Mano sentence requires an indirect object, while its English counterpart takes a direct object.

ńǹ nàà à ká.	I want it.
Gbɔ̃́ m mɔ̀.	Help me.

One Mano postposition can have several English translations:

à zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show it to me.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ yábó kɛ n lɛ̀ɛ.	He works for me.

Two Mano postpositions may have the same English translation:

E gbɛ̀ n là.	He shouted at me.
E yéi si m mɔ̀.	He laughed at me.

Because of these facts, you should not try to memorize a meaning for each Mano postposition. Instead, you should memorize the postpositions used with each verb you learn and the kinds of indirect object they express. When you make a vocabulary card for a new verb, it should include the postpositions used to express each possible indirect object

Some examples of the major postpositions which form indirect objects are shown below. Read through them, but don't try to memorize each phrase.

lɛ̀ɛ: 'to, for'

à zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show it to me.
à gèe n lɛ̀ɛ.	Tell me. (Say it to me.)
ńǹ yɛ́lɛ kɛ i lɛ̀ɛ.	I'm ashamed of you.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ yábó kɛ n lɛ̀ɛ.	He works for me.

mɔ̀: 'to, for, on, from, at'

I kɔ̀ zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ à mɔ̀.	Point to it.
Gbɔ̃́ m mɔ̀.	Help me.
E gɛ̀lɛ̀ duo m mɔ̀.	He threw a stone at me.
Dàsɔ̀ɔ lɛ pɛĩ́ m mɔ̃̀.	The shirt is (too) small for me.
Lɛ́a lɛ́ e gó m mɔ̀.	I'm bleeding. (Blood is coming from me.)

ká: 'with'

ńǹ nàà à ká.	I want it.
Nu à ká m píé.	Bring it to me. (Come with it to me.)
E m pa yílí ká.	He hit me with a stick.
Lɛ gɔ̃ ká.	He is a man.

pié: 'towards, location or area of'

Nu à ká *m pié*.	Bring it *to me*.
O dɔ́ɔ́ dɔ *m pié*.	They chatted *with me*.
Lo *m pié* ká là.	Go to *my* house.
*í*ì wɔ̄ ma ì *miɛ̀ni pié?*	Do you hear anything *from your family*?
káà sí *pié*	parking station (car-taking *place*)
Lo kpeí *sóé ká pié*.	Go straight *towards the church*.

yí: 'in, at, to, from'

N ló *pɛ́lɛi*.	I went *to town*.
ŋ gó *pɛ́lɛi*.	I came *from town*.

In certain cases, the tone of the third person pronoun is high rather than low:

Compare:	Ma sí *á* kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I took it from *him*.
	Ma gèe *à* lɛ̀ɛ.	I told *him*.

1. Substitution Drill

Ma sí i kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I took it from you.
á	
ka	
o	
E nu à ká m pié.	He brought it to me.
ko	
i	
Ma gèe mià séíséí lɛ̀ɛ.	I told everybody.
ko kiizɔ̀ɔ̀mì	our teacher
m ɓɛ́ɛ	my friend

2. Transformation

When your tutor gives you a sentence, change the verb to its opposite and reverse the subject and indirect object, as shown in the example sentence:

Teacher: Ma lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ i píé.	I sold it to you.
Student: ɓ̲a lɔ́ ŋ kɛ̀lɛ̀.	You bought it from me.
T: Ko à lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ o píé.	We sold it to them.
______________________.	They bought it from us.
T: Lɛ́ɛ̀ pɔɔ̀ lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ mia píé.	He sells things to people.
______________________.	People buy things from him.
T: Mia seísei óò pɔɔ̀ lɔ́ i kɛ̀lɛ̀.	Everybody buys things from you.
______________________.	You sell things to everybody.
T: ń̲ǹ a lɔ́ pìè gɔ̃ e yía kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I'm buying it from this man.
______________________.	This man is selling it to me.
Teacher: E pɛ dɔ̃̀ nu n lɛ̀ɛ.	He gave me something.
Student: M pɛ dɔ̃̀ sí á kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I took something from him.
T: O pɛlèe nu ko lɛ̀ɛ.	They gave us money.
______________________.	We took money from them.
T: ɓ̲̀a nu n lɛ̀ɛ.	You gave it to me.
______________________.	I took it from you.
T: Ko à sí i kɛ̀lɛ̀.	We took it from you.
______________________.	You gave it to us.
T: Gɔ̃nɛ̀ pɛlèe sí à dàa kɛ̀lɛ̀.	The boy took money from his father.
______________________.	His father gave the boy money.

If you are not able to do the transformations quickly the first time, go through and write the correct response into the blank space. Practice the sentence pairs as a repetition drill. Then try the transformation drill again.

D. Independent Possessives - mine, yours, etc.

In English there is a special form of the possessive pronoun that can be used when the noun being possessed is not mentioned.

Examples: It's mine.
Is that yours?
Ours is better.

There are two equivalent constructions in Mano:

1. an alienable possessive pronoun followed by /pɛ/ - 'thing'

m̀m̀pɛ lɛ.	It's mine.
ɓàpɛ lɛ́ e kéa.	This is yours.

2. an inalienable possessive pronoun followed by /zì/, meaning roughly 'part or portion belonging to a person'.

Nzì lɛ.	It's mine.
Izì lɛ́ e kéa.	This is yours.

There does not appear to be any difference in meaning or usage between these two constructions.

1. Repetition Drill

Nzì lɛ.	It's mine.
Izì lɛ.	It's yours.
àzì lɛ.	It's his.
Kozì lɛ.	It's ours (excl.).
Kɔazì lɛ.	It's ours (incl.).
Kazì lɛ.	It's yours (pl.).
Θzì lɛ.	It's theirs.

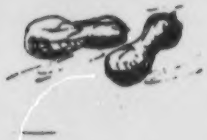
m̲̀m̲̀pɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's mine.
ɓ̲àpɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's yours.
à̲àpɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's hers.
Kòòpɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's ours.
Kɔààpɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's ours (incl.).
Kààpɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's yours (pl.).
Wàpɛ gɛ̃̀ e kéa.	Here's theirs.

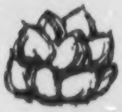
2. Question - Answer

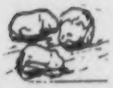
Dɛĩ̀ à pɛ lɛ?	Whose is it?
___pɛ lɛ.	It's ___.
Dɛĩ̀ à zì lɛ?	Whose is it?
___zì lɛ.	It's ___.

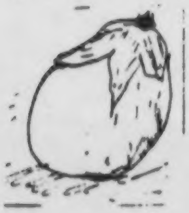
III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

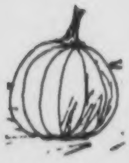
A. More Vegetables

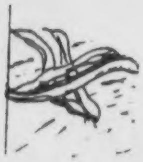
1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

5. 

6. 

1. guó
2. tóṹwɛ́lɛ́
3. gɔ
4. kpɔ́ɔ́ɓɛɛ
5. gɛ̃
6. ze

1. Learn to identify the picture your tutor points to, using these sentence frames:

___ lɛ e kéa	This is a ___.
Mɛ e kɛ́ ɓɛ?	What is it?
___ lɛ.	It's a ___.

2. Point to the picture that contains the vegetable your tutor asks you to identify.

___ lɛ mɛ́?	Where is the ___?
___ zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ.	Show me the ___.

B. Meat

The word /wìì/ means both 'animal' and 'meat'.

Examples: ɓɔ̀ lɛ wìì ká.	A pig is an animal.
M ɓɔ̀wìì lɔ́.	I bought pig meat.

When used to mean 'meat', it is placed immediately after the name of the animal whose meat is being described.

Examples:	dììwìì	cowmeat
	ɓɔwìì	pigmeat

However, it is also common to use just the animal's name, omitting /wìì/.

Examples:	Lɛ tɔ̀ɔ̀ kpàà pìà.	She is cooking chicken.
	m̲̀ḿ̲ ɓɔ̀ ɓèlè.	I don't eat pig.

1. Question and Answer

Q: Wìì kpɛ lɛ́ ɓa nàà i ɓèlè?

A: ń̲ǹ̲ nàà n ___ ɓèlè.

Q: Wìì kpɛ lɛ́ ɓa lɔ́?

A: N ___ lɔ́.

C. Vegetable, Fruit

In the last few lessons you have learned words for different fruits and vegetables. The generic words for 'fruit' and 'vegetable' are:

yílíɓɛɛ	fruit
ɓòo	vegetable.

1. Identification

Get together an assortment of fruits and vegetables, or draw pictures of them. Learn the names of any you don't know. Point to each one and identify it as a fruit or vegetable, using one of these substitution sentences:

____ lɛ yílíɓɛɛ ká.

____ lɛ ɓòo ká.

2. Question and Answer

Q: Yílíɓɛɛ lɛ́ e kéa?

A: m̱̀m̀, yílíɓɛɛ lɛ.

Gbàaò, yílíɓɛɛ wá.

Q: ɓ̱òo lɛ́ e kéa?

A: m̱̀m̀, ɓòo lɛ.

Gbàaò, ɓòo wá.

Q: Yílíɓɛɛ zɔ̏ɔ̏ n lɛ̀ɛ.

ɓ̱òo zɔ̏ɔ̏ n lɛ̀ɛ.

A: ____ gɛ̏.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Practice bargaining in Mano with your tutor. Take turns playing the roles of seller and buyer.

B. Find out what object pronoun contractions occur with the progressive tense and present tense subject pronouns. Are they the same as the contractions that take place in the past tense?

C. Write a story concerning bargaining or marketing. Correct it with your tutor. Without repeating the exact words of the written story, tell it out loud to your tutor. Afterwards, answer any questions he has about the story in Mano.

V. VOCABULARY LIST

bɛ̀i à mɔ̀ ___...be able to ___
ɓòo...vegetable
___dáàsi kɛ...to dash ___
gɛ̃...pumpkin (any squash)
gɔ...kola
guó...groundnuts
gbɔ̃́ ___ mɔ̀...to help ___
kpɔ́ɔ́ɓɛɛ...eggplant
_A_ lɔ́ _B_ kɛ̀lɛ̀...to buy A from B
_A_ lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ (_B_ píé)...to sell A (to B)

pɛlèe lákã́...to lower the price
sɛ̃́sì...change
sɛ̃́sì kɛ...to change, to make change
tóṹwɛ́lɛ́...palm nuts
wìì...animal, meat
 ___wìì...___meat
zằbè...customer
ze...beans

LESSON TEN

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IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue A

Walter:	kpɔ́ kpɔ́!	Knock, knock.
Pee:	Walter, ɓ̀i lɛ?	Walter, is that you?
W:	m̀m̀.	Yes.
P:	Nu kɛì í yà táà.	Come in and sit down.
W:	Ko mà zèe?	What news here?
P:	Gbàaò. Nu ko ló ko lé ɓèlè.	Nothing. Come eat with us.
W:	i zúó, maà ǹ lé ɓèlè.	Thank you, I've already eaten.
P:	íì nàà pɛ́ ɗɔ̀ ká ɓa mí?	Do you want something to drink?
W:	Fanta lɛ́ i kɛ̀lɛ̀?	Do you have Fanta?
P:	m̀m̀. Yàá, nu Fanta ká m ɓ̀ɛ́ɛ lɛ̀ɛ.	Yes. Yaa, bring some Fanta for my friend.

(Yaa enters)

P:	Walter, n nà lɛ.	Walter, this is my wife.

Dialogue B

Yaa:	i yùá.	Hello.
Waiter:	i yùá.	Hello.
Y:	Ka n dɛ̃̀ ká káà yábó kɛ?	Do you work with my husband?
W:	èè. Mɛ́ɛ yábó lɛ́ ɓa kɛ?	Yes. What is your work?
Y:	ńǹ n nyiɛ́ kɛ kò káa wà nɔ́ɔ̀ mɔ̀.	I look after our house and children.
W:	lɛ kíli? ɓaà nɛ́ wɛ̀ɛɛ yè?	Is that so? How many children do you have?
Y:	Maà nɛ́ sɔ́ɔ́li yè. gɔ̃́ɔ̃nɛ̀ yààka wà lóanɛ̀ pèètɛ lɛ.	I have five children, three boys and two girls.
W:	ì sɛ̀ kɛɛ̀. o kɛɛ̀ a kɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	Congratulations. How old are they?
Y:	à nɛ́ ɓɛ́ízɛ aà kɛ kɛɛ̀ vʊ doó wɛ́lɛ́ yììsɛ ká. à nɛ́ dɛɛ aà kɛ kɛɛ̀ yììsɛ ká.	The oldest is fourteen. The youngest is four.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Introductions

Introductions are very simple in Mano. They can be accomplished with the simple statement 'this is my friend,' 'this is my teacher,' etc. However, the people who are meeting each other should follow this up by telling each other their names.

Study these phrases:

m ɓɛ́ɛ gɛ̀ e kéa.	This is my friend.
m mi gbùò gɛ̀ e kéa.	This is my boss.
n kiizɔ̀ɔ̀mi gɛ̀ e kéa.	This is my teacher.
ń̀n yábó kɛ à mɔ̀.	I work for him.
lɛ́ɛ̀ yábó kɛ m mɔ̀.	He works for me.
kóò yábó kɛ e kéè là.	We work together.
ko yé kóò yábó kɛ.	I work with him. (Lit.: We (and) him we work.)
íì m ɓɛ́ɛ dɔ?	Do you know my friend?
ń̀n dɔ díé.	I know (him) already.
ǹń dɔ díé.	I don't know him.

B. Invitations and Polite Phrases

Two of the most basic points of Liberian etiquette involve eating and drinking. First, you should always offer a visitor something to drink...cold water, soda, Koolaid, etc. Second, if you are eating or about to eat you must offer some food to your visitor.

Although Liberians say 'please' and 'thank you' they do not use these expressions as often as Americans. It is up to the student not only to learn the correct Mano expression, but also when it can be appropriately used.

Phrases:

nu {n ko} vùò gèe.	come visit {me us} (say hello)
nu {ko ko koo} lé ɓèlè	come, let's eat
mɛ́ ɓà nàà ɓa mi?	What do you want to drink?
n̂ǹ nàà yíí dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́ ká.	I want cold water.
yɔ dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́	beer (cold liquor)
yɔ gáà	strong liquor
{i ka} zúó (nyɔ́ɔ̀ɔ)	thank you (very much)
i zúó léɓèlèa wɛ́ì.	Thank you for the food.
i sɛ̀ kɛ́ɛ̀	thank you; congratulations; gesundheit (lit. you did well)
{i ka} mámá	thank you (used with other expressions for added emphasis: e.g. i sɛ̀ kɛ́ɛ̀, i zúó, i mámá 'Thank you, thank you, thank you.'
ɓà kpé lɛ sɛ̀	please
i {tèká tèá}	that's too bad, I'm sorry (Liberian English: never mind)

C. Perfect Aspect

The basic meaning of Mano perfect tense is to denote that the action of the sentence has been completed, without specifying the exact time. It is used to talk about the state resulting from a past action, rather than the action itself. It can usually be translated with 'have ___en" e.g., 'I have eaten,' 'He has gone.' Sometimes it is used where English uses 'to be' in the present tense - e.g. Maà lee sí...'I am married.' (lit. 'I have taken a woman').

Memorize the subject pronouns used for the perfect tense, shown in the sentences below.

1. Repetition

maà lee sí.	'I am married.'
ɓaà lee sí.	'You are married.'
aà lee sí.	'He is married.'
koà lee sí.	'We (inc.) are married.'
kɔaà lee sí.	'We (exc.) are married.'
kaà lee sí.	'You (pl.) are married.'
waà lee sí.	'They are married.'

2. Substitution

Substitute the perfect tense pronouns in these sentence frames.

maà ló.	'I have gone.'
___ ló.	'___ has gone.'
maà i gɛ̀.	'I have seen you.'
___ i gɛ̀.	'___ have seen you.'
maà nɛ́ yààka yè.	'I have (had) three children.'
___ nɛ́ yààka yè.	'___ has had three children.'

D. Negative Perfect

The subject pronouns used in the negative perfect tense are the same as those used for negative present tense. Negative perfect is distinguished by the addition of nɛ́ 'yet' after the verb. It is as if in Mano instead of saying 'I haven't done it' you say 'I didn't do it yet.', which amounts to the same thing.

1. Repetition

ǹń ló yí nɛ́.	'I haven't gone there.'
ìí ló yí nɛ́.	'You " " "
lɛ̀ɛ́ ló yí nɛ́.	'He " " "
kòó ló yí nɛ́.	'We (inc.) " "
kɔ̀àá ló yí nɛ́.	'We (exc.) " "
kàá ló yí nɛ́.	'You (pl.) " "
òó ló yí nɛ́.	'They " "

2. Substitution

ǹń nɛ́ yè nɛ́. __ nɛ́ yè nɛ́.	'I don't have any children.'
ǹń lee sí nɛ́. __ lee sí nɛ́.	'I'm not married.'
ǹń à gɛ̀ nɛ́. __ à gɛ̀ nɛ́.	'I haven't seen him.'

3. Positive to Negative

Respond to each stimulus by changing the sentence from the positive to the negative form of the perfect tense.

Pos.	Neg.
maà ló zèe.	ǹń ló zèe né.
ɓaà ɨ ló ɓèlè?	ìí ɨ lé ɓèlè nɛ́?
aà ɲɛlèe nu n lèɛ.	______________.
koò à gɛ̀.	______________.
waà à gɔ̀ɔ n lɛ̀ɛ.	______________.
maà ɲɛ ɓèlè.	______________.
kɔaà ló.	______________.

4. Negative to Positive

Neg.	Pos.
lɛ̀ɛ́ gɔ̃ sí nɛ́.	aà gɔ̃ sí.
òó ko lé ɓèlè nɛ́.	____________________.
kàá à gɛ̀ nɛ́?	____________________.
ìí káa lé ɓo nɛ́?	____________________.
ǹń nɛ́ yè nɛ́.	____________________.
lɛ̀ɛ́ nu zèe nɛ́.	____________________.

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. More Words for Relatives

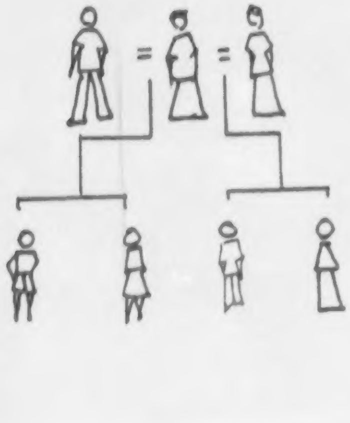
Many Mano men have more than one wife. This necessitates some additional vocabulary to distinguish relationships among the different wives. The terms 'senior' and 'junior' refer to the order of marriage and not the actual age of the wives. It is possible for a senior wife to be younger than a junior wife. The term 'co-wife' is used by a woman to refer to another woman who is married to the same man as herself.

tɔɔ̀	co-wife
ká lee de	senior wife
lee nɛ́	junior wife

Practice some introductions using these terms. Find out the phrasing that would be used by a man introducing his different wives, by one wife when introducing another, by a child introducing one of his father's other wives.

To refer to your brothers or sisters from the same mother the term lèe gé vɔ is used.

Practice these words, using the picture below:

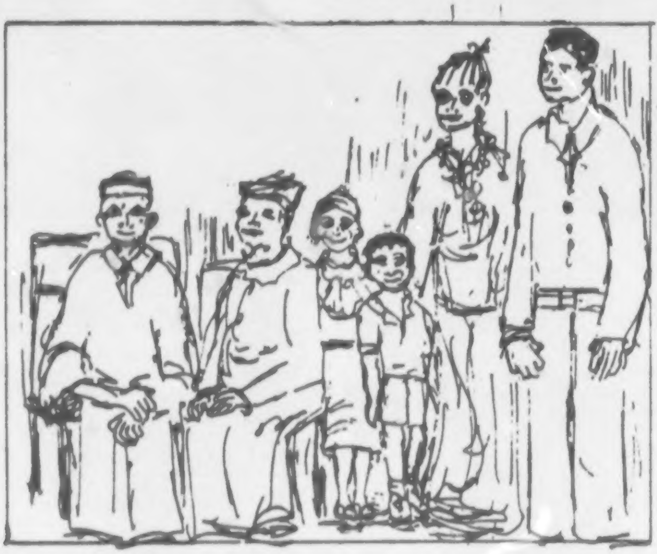


B. People: Young _____, Old _____

gɔ̃nɛ̀	boy
gɔ̃à nɛ̀ɛ	boys
lenɛ̀	girl
loànɛ̀	girls
nɛ́fú dɛɛ	baby (young child)
le dɛɛ	young woman
gɔ̃ dɛɛ	young man
lekpáà	old woman (compare with kpàá kpàá 'dried fish')
gɔ̃ kolo, gɔ̃kpáà	old man
nàa mɛ́ kolo	old man
nèe mɛ́ kolo	old woman
mia kolo	old people
dɛɛ	young, new
zii, kolo	old (opposite of both 'young' and 'new')

Note that there are several ways to say 'old man,' and 'old woman.' Find out which your tutor prefers.

Use these words to describe the people shown below.



C. Numbers 11-100

10...vũ doó

11...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ doó

12...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ pèètɛ

13...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ yààka

14...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ yììsɛ

15...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ sɔ́ɔ́li

16...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ sáláádo

17...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ sálápèèlɛ

18...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ sálààka

19...vũ wɛ́lɛ́ sɛ́lɛ̀isɛ

20...vũ pèètɛ

21...vũ pèètɛ wɛ́lɛ́ doó

22...vũ pèètɛ wɛ́lɛ́ pèètɛ

23...vũ pèètɛ wɛ́lɛ́ yààka

30...vũ yààka

31...vũ yààka wɛ́lɛ́ doó

40...vũ yììsɛ

50...vũ sɔ́ɔ́li

60...vũ sáláádo

70...vũ sálápèètɛ

80...vũ sálààka

90...vũ sɛ́lɛ̀isɛ

100...wá

1. Counting

Practice counting from 1 to 100, 21-29, 31-39, 41-49, etc. using this pattern:

vũ ______ (wɛ́lɛ́ _____)

2. Translation

Give the English equivalent:

vũ doó wɛ́lɛ́ sɔ́ɔ́li ____________

vũ sálààka ____________

vũ yààka wɛ́lɛ́ sɛ́lɛ̀isɛ ____________

vũ pèètɛ wɛ́lɛ́ yììsɛ ____________

vũ sálápèètɛ wɛ́lɛ́ pèètɛ ____________

vũ yììsɛ wɛ́lɛ́ doó ____________

Give the Mano equivalent:

57 ____________

68 ____________

100 ____________

13 ____________

99 ____________

72 ____________

25 ____________

31 ____________

D. Personal Information

1. _____ sí   to marry _____ (to take ____)

Sàé aà lee sí.	Saye is married. (lit.: Saye has taken a woman.)
Kɔ̀ɔ́ aà gɔ̃ sí.	Kɔ̀ɔ́ is married. (lit. Kɔ̀ɔ́ has taken a man.)
ma sí yalá.	I married her yesterday.
aà m ɓɛ́ɛ sí.	He is married to my friend.

2. nɛ́ yè - to bear children

waà nɛ́ pèètɛ yè.	They have two children.
ǹń nɛ́ yè nɛ́.	I don't have any children.
o n yè 1950.	I was born (they bore me) in 1950.

3. kɛ kɛɛ̀ ____ ká - to be ____ years old.

maà kɛ kɛɛ̀ vũ yààka ká.	I am 30 years old.
àà kɛ kɛɛ̀ vũ pèètɛ sɔ́ɔ́li ká.	He is 25 years old.
i kɛɛ̀ (e) a kɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How old are you? (Your years did how many?)

4. Questions and Answers

Q:	ɓaà lee sí? baà gɔ̃ sí?	Are you married?
A:	m̀m̀, ______________________________. gbàoò, ___________________________.	
Q:	ɓaà nɛ́ yè?	Do you have any children?
A:	m̀m̀, ____. gbàoò, ____.	
Q:	ɓaà nɛ́ yè wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How many children do you have?
A:	maà nɛ́ ______ yè. maà nɛ́ yè ______.	I have _______ children. I have _______ children.
Q:	i kɛɛ̀ a kɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How old are you?
A:	maà kɛ kɛɛ̀ ____ ká.	I'm _________ years old.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

1. Prepare a short text on your family. Correct it with your tutor, and learn it. Then answer your tutor's questions about your family.

2. Find out something about your tutor's family by asking in Mano.

3. Go with your tutor to where he lives and meet some of the people there. Greet them in Mano and carry on a short Mano conversation.

4. Pick one polite expression at a time and concentrate on observing when Mano people use it.

V. VOCABULARY LIST

ɓɛ́ĩ́zɛ...first

dɛɛ...young, new

dɔ...to know

dɔ́...ever

dɔ̃̀...some

dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́...cold

gɔ̃kpáà...old man

ká lee de...senior wife

kɛ kɛɛ̀ ___ ká...be ___years
old

kɛɛ̀...year

kíli...so, thus

kolo...old

lé ɓèlè...to eat (intransitive)

lee nɛ́...junior wife

lèe gé vɔ...brother or sister

lekpáà...old woman

__ mi...to drink___

nàa mɛ́ kolo...old man

nèe mɛ́ kolo...old woman

nɛ́fú dɛɛ...baby

nɔ́...only

nyiɛ́ kɛ ___ mɔ̀...keep one's
eye on ___

þɛ dɔ̃̀...something

(lee)sí...to get married
(gɔ̃)   (take a (woman))
                 (man)

tɔɔ̀...co-wife

___ vùò gèe...visit___
(say hello to___)

yábó kɛ___ mɔ̀...work for___

yalá, yolá...yesterday

___yè...to give birth to___
o n yè 1950...I was born in 1950
maà nɛ́ pèètɛ yè...I have 2 children

yíí...water

yɔ...liquor
  yɔ dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́...beer
  yɔ gá(g)à...strong liquor

zii...old

........................LESSON ELEVEN............................

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V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue

Nyàá: I yùá.	Hello.
Walter: I yùá. ó̱ò̱ n sí Walter.	Hello. My name is Walter.
N: Nyàá. Ko mà?	(My name is) Nyaa. What news?
W: à̱ lɛ̀ lɛ sɛ̀.	It's fine.
N: I nu Labííà mɛ́ɛpɛ̂?	When did you come to Liberia?
W: Maà mɛnɛ yààka kɛ zèe. N nu Dizɛ́mba.	I have been here three months. I came in December.
N: Labííà lɛ i lɛ̀ɛ sɛ̀?	Do you like Liberia?
W: ɛ̱̀ɛ̀, lɛ n lɛ̀ɛ sɛ̀ nyɔ́ɔ̀.	Yes, I like it very (too) much.
N: I yàá lɛ mɛ́?	Where do you live?
W: N lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀.	I live here.
N: ó̱, ǹń i gɛ̏ nɛ́ dɔ́.	Oh, I haven't seen you before.
W: m̱̀ḿ ɓɔ nɛ́ zèe fɛ̏ɛ̏. ṉ gó Dukɔ́ɔ̀ lɔ́ɔ yí nɔ́.	I haven't been here long. I only came from Monrovia this week.
N: í̱ì lo yìì zèe lúó wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How long will you live here?
W: ṉ́ǹ lo yìì zèe kɛɛ̀ pèètɛ ká. ṉ́ǹ ló kɛɛ̀ e núɔ, Dizɛ́mba ká.	I will stay here for two years. I will leave next year, in December.

Text

Walter aà nu zèe dɔ́. Lɛ́ɛ̀ gó Amɛ́lɛ́kà. E yì Dukɔ́ɔ̀ mɛnɛ pèètɛ mɔ̀, lɛ̀ e nu Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà zèe. Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà lɛ à lɛ̀ɛ sɛ̀. Walter lɛ̀ɛ́ nɛ́ yè nɛ́, ɓɔáká lɛ̀ɛ́ lee sí nɛ́. E kɛɛ̀ a kɛ vũ pèètɛ wɛ́lɛ́ sáláádo. à dàa aà gà, kɛ à lèe lɛ tiǎ bée. à lèegévɔ o yààka. à lìidíɛ gɔ̃zɛ pèètɛ lɛ à kɛ̀lɛ̀, ye lɛ́ zeĩ́ lɛ́kɛ lezɛ doó lɛ à kɛ̀lɛ̀.

Walter has just come here. He comes from America. He lived in Monrovia for two months; then he came here to Ganta. He likes Ganta. Walter doesn't have any children, because he isn't married. He is twenty-six years old. His father is dead, but his mother is still alive. He has three brothers and sisters. He has two older brothers, and also he has one younger sister.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Future Tense

The future tense is formed by using a present tense subject pronoun followed by an auxiliary verb /lo/ (from /ló/ - 'to go').

A special form of the main verb is used. The final vowel of the main verb is doubled. The copied vowel is the same as the original, except in tone. It is low toned, if the verb stem ends in mid or low tone, and mid toned when the original verb ends in high tone.

Examples:	ló	-	lóo	to go	-	will go
	nu	-	nuù	to come	-	will come
	kɛ	-	kɛɛ̀	to do	-	will do
	yì	-	yìì	to live (at)		will live (at)
	gɛ̃̀	-	gɛ̃̀ɛ̃̀	to see	-	will see

1. Repetition Drill

ń̲ǹ̲ lo lóo yí.	I will go there.
í̲ì̲ lo lóo yì.	You will go there.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo lóo yí.	He will go there.
Kóò lo lóo yí.	We will go there.
Kɔáà lo lóo yí.	We (inc.) will go there.
Káà lo lóo yí.	You (pl.) will go there.
ó̲ò̲ lo lóo yí.	They will go there.

2. Transformation

Change the sentences given into the future tense. Make sure you use the correct form of the verb.

Present	Future
ń̲ǹ̲ lo yí.	ń̲ǹ̲ lo lóo yí.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ ŋ gba à ká.	Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo ŋ gbaà à ká.

Present	Future
óò yábó kɛ zèe.	______________________.
They work here.	
íì à gɛ̏.	______________________.
You see it.	

Perfect	Future
Maà le sí.	ńǹ lo le síi.
I am married.	
Maà kɛɛ̀ pèètɛ kɛ zèe.	______________________.
I have been here two years.	
Aà yɔ mi.	______________________.
He has had some liquor.	
Koà o vùò gèe.	______________________.
We have visited them.	

B. Negative Future Tense

The negative of the future tense is formed by using a negative present tense subject pronoun, followed by /ló/ and the special form of the main verb. Note that in the negative /ló/ has high tone.

1. Repetition Drill

Lɛ̀ɛ́ ló i gɛ̏ɛ̏.	He won't see you.
ǹń ló lóo tòò.	I won't go tomorrow.
Kòó ló yȉȉ Sɛ̃gbéí.	We won't live in Saniquellie.
òó ló pɛlèe nuù ko lɛ̀ɛ.	They won't give us (any) money.
ìí ló à gèe.	You won't say it.
ǹń ló nuù kɛì pɛ́nɛɛ.	I won't come home today.

2. Transformation

Positive	Negative
Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo n vùò gèeè.	Lɛ̀ɛ́ ló n vùò gèeè.
He will visit me.	
ṉ́ǹ lo a gɛ̏ɛ̏.	ṉ̀ń ló a gɛ̏ɛ̏.
I will see him.	
í̱ì lo mááwè maà.	______________________.
You will understand Mano.	
Kóò lo pɔɔ̀ lɔ́ɔ lɔ́ɔ́yí.	______________________.
We will buy things in the market.	
Kóò lo ko kéè gɛ̏ɛ̏ tòò.	______________________.
We will see each other tomorrow.	
Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo kɛɛ̀ pèèlɛ kɛɛ̀ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀.	______________________.
He will spend two years here.	

III. VOCABULARY BUILDING

A. Place, Home

The English words 'place' and 'home' have several different Mano translations. The sentences below can all mean 'I'm going home.', depending on where you are when you say them.

ńǹ lo m pà.	If you are in another town.
ńǹ lo pɛ́lɛi.	If you are on the farm.
ńǹ lo kaì.	If you are in town.

These words can all be translated as 'place', but their meanings are not completely equivalent.

pà	home, home town, place where one grew up
I pà lɛ mɛ́?	Where are you from?
lɛ̀	yard, farm clearning, area
lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀	this place (at the place)
Lɛ̀ɛ lɛ́ n yía.	This is the place I'm staying at.
píé	area around ___, vicinity of ___
káà sí píé	parking station (car-taking place)
Lɛ ko píé.	He is staying with us. (He is at our place.)

B. 'To live'; 'To be staying at'

When translating the verb 'to live' into Mano, you must be careful. The Mano verb /yì/ is more specific than its English equivalent. It means 'to be alive for a period of time', so it is not appropriate in the question 'Where do you live?', meaning where are you staying. There are several different ways of asking this, as shown below.

1. Where do you live?

N lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀.	I am (staying) here.
N n lìidíɛ́ píé.	I'm staying with my older brother/sister. (I'm at my older brother's place.)
N yàá (pɛ́lɛí) zèe.	I'm staying (in town) here.
N yàá Sɛ̃glɔ̃í.	I'm staying in Saniquellie.
ŋ Gɔ̃ɔ̃pà.	I'm in Ganta.
Q: I mɛ́ɛ zàá?	Where do you live? (lit., Where are you?)
A: N ________________.	I am (at) ______________.
Q: I yàá (lɛ) mɛ́?	Where are you staying? (lit., sitting) (Where is your seat?)
A: N yàá ____________.	

2. How long have you lived here?

N yī Bá kɛɛ̀ vũ pèètɛ mɔ̀.	I lived in Bahn 20 years.
E yì kɛɛ̀ vũ yììsɛ wɛ́lɛ́ doó mɔ̀.	He lived 41 years.
Aà bɔ zèe gbeī ká.	He's been here for a long time.
Aà yī zèe fɛ̃̀ɛ̃̀.	He's lived here for a long time.
Aà kɛɛ̀ kɛ zèe ________.	He's been here for _____ years.
Aà kɛɛ̀ ______ kɛ zèe.	He's been here for _____ years.
Q: baà kɛɛ̀ kɛ zèe wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How many years have you been here?
A: Maà kɛɛ̀ ______ kɛ zèe.	I've spent ___ years here.
Q: baà yì zèe wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How long have you lived here?
A: Maà yī zèe kɛɛ̀ ____ mɔ̀.	I've lived here for ____ years.
mɛnɛ____ mɔ̀.	____ months.
lɔ́ɔ́ ____ mɔ̀.	____ weeks.
lúó ____ mɔ̀.	____ days.

C. Time - Days, Weeks, etc.

The word for 'day', /lúó/ is also used for time in general:

lúó séĩ́ ká	every day; all the time
lúó gbṹũ ká	sometimes.

The words for 'week' and 'market' are identical, probably because the weekly market held in each town is the major public event of the week. Also, the words for 'month' and 'moon' are the same.

lúó	day, time
lɔ́ɔ́	week, market
mɛnɛ	month, moon
kɛɛ̀	year
lɔ́ɔ́ lúó	market day
yalá, yolá	yesterday
pɛ́nɛɛ	today
tòò	tomorrow
diì	the day after tomorrow
_____ a ká	this (unit of time)
_____ e kɛɛ ká	last _______________
_____ e núɔ ká	next _______________

1. Substitution Drill

a. N ló pìè lɔ́ɔ́ a ká.	I'm going this week.
mɛnɛ a ká.	this month.
kɛɛ̀ a ká.	this year.
pɛ́nɛɛ.	today.

b. ńǹ lo à kɛɛ̀ tòò.	I will do it tomorrow.
mɛnɛ e núɔ ká.	next month.
kɛɛ̀ e núɔ ká.	next year.
lɔ́ɔ́ e núɔ ká.	next week.
c. E ŋ gɛ̀ mɛnɛ e kɛɛ ká.	He saw me last month.
kɛɛ̀ e kɛɛ ká.	last year.
yalá.	yesterday.
lɔ́ɔ́ e kɛɛ ká.	last week.

2. Substitution - Transformation

Change the tense of the sentence to match the substituted time word.

a. ńǹ lo lóo yí tòò. I will go there tomorrow.

yalá. ______________________________.

lɔ́ɔ a ká. ______________________________.

kɛɛ̀ ɛ núɔ ká. ______________________________.

b. E lɔ́ɔ́ dɔ Gbãká mɛnɛ e kɛɛ ká. He made market in Gbanga last month.

lɔ́ɔ́ ɛ kɛɛ ká. ______________________________.

pɛ́nɛɛ ______________________________.

tòò ______________________________.

mɛnɛ a ká. ______________________________.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Speaking only in Mano, find out as much as possible about your tutor - name, age, home town, family members, where he has lived, gone to school, worked, etc. (Set a time limit for this exercise - 10 minutes for example.)

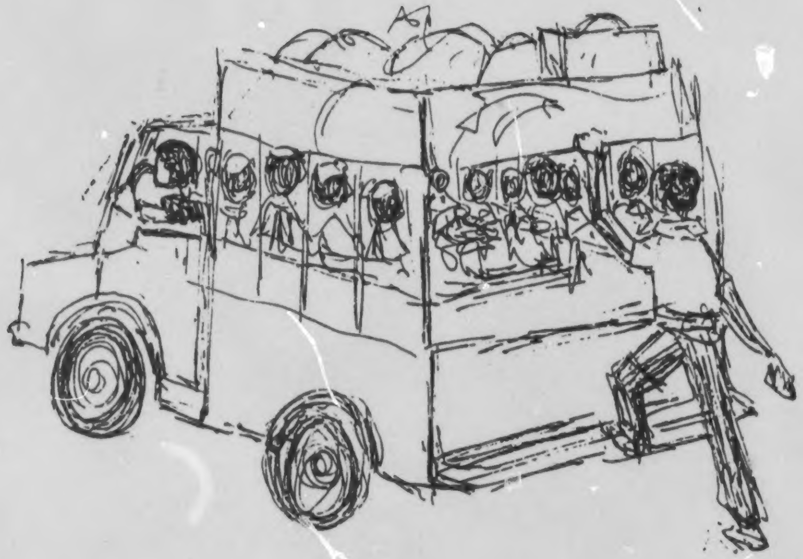
B. Write a one or two paragraph autobiography. Correct it with your tutor and memorize it.

C. Pretend that your tutor has come on a social visit. Make polite conversation to the best of your ability. Reverse roles and try again. This may be more interesting if you or your tutor play the role of another person.

V. VOCABULARY LIST

bée	live, alive
ɓɔ	to arrive at
ĩń ɓo nɛ́ zèe fɛ̀ɛ̀	I haven't been here long.
e ɓɔ kɒàà a là	he arrived at a kitchen hut.
ɓɔáká	because
diì	the day after tomorrow
fɛ̏ɛ̏	for long
gà	to die
lɛ̀, lɛ́	then
lɛ̀	yard, area, clearing
lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀	here, this place
lɔ́ɔ́	week
lúó	day, time
mɛ́ɛpɛ̃́	when (question)
mɛnɛ	month
pà	home, home town
tiã́	still
tòò	tomorrow
ye lɛ́ zeĩ	also
yì (place) (time mɔ̀)	to live (at___) (for ___)

LESSON TWELVE



I. OBJECTIVES

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II. SELF-TEST

A. Write 10 sentences using the following words:

1. in the perfect:
   - a. lɔ́
   - b. gà
   - c. vùò gèe
   - d. gó
   - e. sɛ̃́sì kɛ
   - f. ló

   - g. ta
   - h. zɔ̀ɔ̀
   - i. yà
   - j. sí

2. in the past affirmative:
   - a. gɛ̀
   - b. yè
   - c. gba ___ ká
   - d. nàà ___ ká
   - e. gà

3. in the past negative:
   - a. sí
   - b. lɔ́ ___ kɛ̀lɛ̀
   - c. to
   - d. gɛ̀
   - e. nu

4. Use the same verbs to write ten sentences in the future tense

5. in a complete sentence:
   - a. nɔ́
   - b. lɔ́ɔ́
   - c. kɛɛ
   - d. vʊ dóo
   - e. kíli
   - f. tiá
   - g. lɛ̀
   - h. wà
   - i. dɔ
   - j. yàá

B. Answer the following, orally first, then written:

1. Nyɔ́nɔ́ lɛ yí? ______________________________

2. Mɛ́ e i kɛ̀lɛ̀? ______________________________

3. ɓàa nɛ́ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ yè? ____________________

4. Mɛɛ̀ yábó lɛ́ ɓa kɛ? ____________________

5. Mɛ́ ɓa nàà à ká pɛ́nɛɛ? ____________________

C. Dictation

Have your tutor read one of the dialogues from Lessons 7-11. Then have your tutor dictate it one sentence at a time. Compare it to the book and then correct.

SECTION 2

INTRODUCTION

Up to now, each lesson has contained exercises to use when learning the material presented in the lesson. In the remainder of the book you will be required to take a greater responsibility in the design of your lessons. Each lesson in the book contains dialogues and texts, grammatical explanations, and lists of related vocabulary and phrases. There are some exercises suggested, but you will probably want to make up some more on your own.

You may want to use the suggestions below to help you in your lesson planning. The drills suggested should already be familiar to you from the first ten lessons.

1. Vocabulary

A. Repetition

On first encountering a list of new words, repeat them after your tutor, in the same way you have been doing it until now, until you can say each word fluently.

B. Substitution in a Frame

Find a sentence from the lesson in which items from a list of related words can be substituted. For example, in lesson 11 the sentence n ____ bèlè pìè 'I'm eating ____.' As your tutor cues you by reading each word from the list, substitute it into the frame sentence.

C. Identification in Context

Either using real objects or pictures, identify the objects using phrases such as 'this is a ____', 'there's the ____.' Respond to your tutor's commands like 'Show me the ____,' 'Pick up the ____,' 'Where is the ____?' For verbs, respond with the appropriate action or draw pictures depicting the action.

2. Grammar
   1. In studying a grammatical construction, look for examples of the construction in the texts and dialogues.
   2. Write 10-20 sentences using the grammar point. Correct them with your tutor. If you have made more than two or three mistakes, write more examples and correct them.
   3. When you have studied each of the grammar points, ask your tutor to prepare a list of Mano sentences to translate into English, and English sentences to translate into Mano, which use the new grammar.

3. Texts and Dialogues
   1. Tape the text or dialogue.
   2. Repetition.
   3. Comprehension.
   4. Memorization.
   5. Prepare questions on what happened. Answer questions your tutor asks you.
   6. Summarize the text or dialogue in your own words (in Mano of course). Correct your summary, tape it, memorize it.

4. Free Exercises
   1. Role Playing Dialogues

      Set up a situation in which you and your tutor assume roles -

for instance, you are a shopper, your tutor is a market seller. Carry out a conversation based on these roles. It is helpful to plan a number of questions and remarks ahead of time to use during a dialogue.

2. Composition

Pick a topic and write an essay on it, tell a story, write a dialogue, etc. Correct it with your tutor. You may wish to tape it and memorize it.

3. Free conversation.

Pick a subject and converse with your tutor on it in Mano for a fixed period of time. Begin with a short time limit, say of three minutes. As your ability to converse increases, increase the time limit.

4. Have your tutor tell you something in Mano. Then repeat what he said in your own words. Your tutor should speak for only a short time, say half a minute. If you don't understand something, ask in Mano for an explanation. You may want to have him repeat the story one or more times. Write down any new words or phrases you learn.

5. Describe something to your tutor in Mano...a picture, something that happened to you, etc. Have him ask questions about things he doesn't understand. Talking only in Mano, answer his questions until he understands what you are telling him.

6. Talk with Strangers

The ultimate test of your ability in Mano is whether you can understand and be understood by a stranger. Test your ability to communicate by tring it in a clearly defined situation...for example, doing your marketing in Mano, getting a patient's

7. Tape a Folk Tale

Tape a folk tale, told by your tutor or other Mano acquaintance. Listen to it several times and try to pick out words and phrases you understand. Transcribe it as well as you can. Then go over it sentence by sentence with your tutor until you can write down each Mano word correctly and you know the meaning of the sentence. Now study it in the same way as a text from the book.

If there are sentences with grammatical features you don't know, write a number of sentences expressing similar meanings, correcting them with your tutor, until you understand the grammar involved.

........................LESSON THIRTEEN........................

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. DIALOGUES

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES - Emphatic Sentences; Modal Expressions - 'can', 'may', should'; 'Go with': conjoined subjects; 'Want' with sentence object; Verbs with required objects - 'cook', 'eat'

III. VOCABULARY - Hungry, thirsty, tired; Food and drink; How is the food?; too, very

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. DIALOGUES

Dialogue A

Dɔmì: Lɔ̀ɔ̀mi, i sɛ́nɛ́.	Chief: Stranger, welcome.
Lɔ̀ɔ̀mi: m̀m̀.	Stranger: Yes.
(They shake hands.)	
D: I yùá.	Hello.
L: I yùá. M ɓɛ́ɛ, dɔmìa lɛ mɛ́?	Hello. My friend, where is the chief?
D: Ma lɛ́ n dɔmìa ká zèe. Mɛ́ ɓa mɔ̀ɔ dɔmìa naa?	It is I who am the chief here. Why are you looking for the chief?
L: ń̀n nàà n yí pɛ́nɛɛ zèe. íì bɛ̀i à mɔ̀ íì gbɔ̃́ m mɔ̀?	I want to stay here tonight. Can you help me?
D: Ka nɛ́fúa ka ló.	Go with my son.

Dialogue B

Nɛ́fú: Lɛ̀a gɛ̃̀ ɛ kéa.	Child: Here is the place.
Lɔ̀ɔ̀mi: ɓà kpé lɛ sɛ̀, n gba yíí dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́ ká ma mi.	Stranger: Please, give me (some) cold water to drink.
N: ɓà yíía lɛ.	Here is your water.
L: Zúlú píé lɛ mɛ́?	Where is the bathing place?
N: Lɛ káa mɛi yí.	It's behind the house there.
L: Gboká lɛ yí?	Is the latrine there?
N: m̀m̀, lɛ zúlú ká sɔ́ńɔ́.	Yes, it's next to the bathhouse.
L: Lɔ̀ɔ lɛ n kɛ. Káà ló ka lé ɓèlè mɛ́ɛpɛ̃́?	I'm hungry. When will you eat?
N: Dɔ nɛ́ ɛ ɓɛ́ĩ́ ká. Ko nu pìè pɛ ɓèlè nɔ́ dɛ̀ɛ̀ká.	Wait small. We are eating just now.
L: m̀m̀. ń̀n lo n zúlú nɛ́.	O.K. I will bathe first.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Emphatic Sentences

An emphatic sentence is a sentence in which one of the elements is given special emphasis. It is formed in Mano by a process which involves moving the noun to be emphasized out of its normal place in the sentence. This noun goes to the front of the sentence, followed by lɛ́. Then the original sentence follows, with a pronoun filling the space where the noun was moved from. The subject pronoun often takes a past tense form. The definite article /-a/ is placed on the end of the sentence.

Example: ńǹ nàà ɓu ká. ɓu lɛ́ [ńǹ nàà à ká] -a.

ɓu lɛ́ ń nàà à káa.	It's (just) rice that I want.
Ma lɛ́ n dɔmìa káa.	It is I who am the chief.

The emphatic construction is also used to form questions.

Examples:

Mɛ́ɛ yábó lɛ́ ɓa kɛ?	What work do you do?
Mɛ́ ɓa kɛ à ká?	What did you do with it? or What did you do it with?

B. Modal Expressions

1. bɛ̀i (à mɔ̀) - 'be able to'

The Mano expression for 'can, be able to' is not particularly difficult in itself, but complications may arise when discussing it, due to the Liberian English use of 'can' for habitual or characteristic actions.

For example, Liberian English 'He can do it.' is equivalent to American English 'He does it (usually, often).' Confusion may be avoided simply by using the expression 'be able to': 'He is able (to do) it.'

The word bɛ̀i, 'be able to', can take either a noun object, expressed with the use of the postposition mɔ̀, or a sentence object.

Examples:

ḿ̱m̀ bɛ̀i à mɔ̀.	I'm able to.
m̱̀ḿ bɛ̀i à mɔ̀.	I'm not able to.

With a sentence object, the subject is omitted, and the verb takes the same form as in the future tense.

Examples:

ḿ̱m̀ bɛ̀i lóo yí.	I'm able to go there.
m̱̀ḿ bɛ̀i à kɛɛ̀.	I'm not able to do it.

There are some examples of a different construction, using bɛ̀i à mɔ̀, rather than bɛ̀i, followed by a full sentence:

ĩ̀ bɛ̀i à mɔ̃ ĩ̀ gbɔ̃́ m mɔ̀?	Can you help me?

2. bɛ̀i - 'might', 'may'

bɛ̀i can also be used to express probability, in a manner similar to English 'might'.

ḿ̱m̀ bɛ̀i lóo yí.	I might go there.

The expression for 'might not' involves the addition of the phrase lúó gbṹũ ká, 'sometimes', as well as the negative.

Lúó gbṹũ ká, m̀ḿ bɛ̀i lóo yí.	I might not go there.

3. lɛ sɛ̀ - S - 'should', 'ought to'

lɛ sɛ̀ by itself means 'it's good, it's better.' When followed by a sentence it can express the same idea as English 'should'.

Lɛ sɛ̀ i ló yí.	You should go there. or It's better that you go there.
Lɛ sɛ̀ e nu à píé kɛì.	He should come home.

4. lɛ (____) mɔ̀ S - 'to have to'

Necessity or obligation is expressed by a construction that literally means 'it is on ____ to ____.'

Lɛ m mɔ̀ n ló yí.	I have to go there.
Lɛ ì mɔ̀ i i lé ɓèlè.	You have to eat.

Sometimes the first part of the construction is frozen in the form laà mɔ̀.

Laà mɔ̀ n kɛ.	I need to do (it).
Laà mɔ̀ a kɛ	He needs to do it.
Laà mɔ̀ ɓa kɛ.	You need to do it.
Also, Laà mɔ̀ e kɛ.	It's supposed to happen.

C. 'Go with': Conjoined Subjects

The English word 'with' can often be translated by the postposition ká.

Lɛ tóṹ yíí kpàà pìè tɔ̀ɔ̀ ká.	She is cooking palm butter with chicken.

However, when it is used to mean that one person is accompanying another, it is expressed in a different way. To say 'I went with him' requires a sentence that translates more literally as 'we and he went'. This may involve a simple conjoined subject.

Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ wà mi doó o ló lúúa.	The man went to the bush with one person.

More usually, special pronoun forms are used at the beginning of the sentence. These special pronouns can also be used in other sentences with a double pronoun subject.

Ko yé ko ló.	I went with him. (We and he went).
Ka yé ka ló.	You went with him. (You [pl.] and he went.)
Ko bí ko ló.	I went with you. (We and you went.)
Kɔa ínu kɔa lɔ́.	I went with you (pl.). (We [inc.] and you [pl.] went.)
Ko àyé nu ko ló.	I went with them. (We and they went.)

It is also common to find this combined with the emphatic construction.

Ye lɛ́ ko yé ko lóa.	He went with me. (It is him who we and he went.)
Ka yénu lɛ́ ka lóa.	You went with them.

D. nàà S - 'want' with sentence complement

You have already learned /nàà ____ ká/, 'to want', used with nouns, as in ńǹ nàà ɓu ká, 'I want food (rice).', etc. But /nàà/ can also be followed by a complete sentence.

ńǹ nàà n n lé ɓèlè.	I want to eat.
ńǹ nàà n ló.	I want to go.

The subject of the complement sentence uses the past tense form of the pronoun. Notice that it is not omitted when it is the same as the main subject, as in English. Of course, the subject of the complement sentence may also be different from that of the main sentence. This does not change the Mano construction.

ńǹ nàà i i lé ɓèlè.	I want you to eat.
ńǹ nàà e ló.	I want him to go.

E. Verbs with required objects

1. ___ ɓèlè - to eat ___

The verb ɓèlè, 'to eat', must always have an object.

Examples:

N ɓu ɓèlè.	I ate rice.
N bólò ɓèlè.	I ate a banana.

To translate English expressions like 'I ate', which do not explicitly mention what is eaten, use the phrase lé ɓèlè:

Examples:

ɓaà i lé ɓèlè?	Have you eaten?
ńǹ nàà n n lé ɓèlè.	I want to eat.

lé ɓèlè, used as a verb, requires a possessive pronoun matching the subject of the sentence, attached to lé. Thus, to say 'he ate', one literally says something like 'he ate his mouth'.

N n lé ɓèlè.	I ate.
I i lé ɓèlè.	You ate.
E e lé ɓèlè.	He ate.
Ko ko lé ɓèlè.	We ate.
Ka ka lé ɓèlè.	You (pl.) ate.
O o lé ɓèlè.	They ate.

Note the possessive pronoun /e/ in e e lé ɓèlè, 'He ate (his food).' This is the reflexive form, discussed later in Chapter 16 , and means basically 'his own'.

Another way of saying 'eat' is with the object pɛ, 'thing'.

Examples:

M pɛ ɓèlè.	I ate.
I pɛ ɓèlè.	You ate.

This does not require any possessive pronoun.

2. ____kpàà - 'to cook ____'

Like ɓèlè, 'eat', kpàà 'to cook' must have an object.

Examples:

N tóű yíí kpàà pìè.	I am cooking palm butter.
N ɓɔ̀ wà béì lɛ́ɛ́ kpàà pìè.	I'm cooking pig (meat) and cassava greens.
N gbɔɔ kpàà pìè.	I'm cooking.
Mɛ́ ɓa kpàà pìè?	What are you cooking?

III. VOCABULARY

A. I'm hungry/thirsty/tired...

1.	Lɔ̀ɔ lɛ́ n kɛ.	I'm hungry.
	Yímílɔ lɛ́ n kɛ.	I'm thirsty
	Nɛ́nɛ́ lɛ́ n kɛ.	I'm cold.
	Yɔa lɛ́ n kɛ.	I'm sick.
	Yí lɛ́ n kɛ.	I'm sleepy.
	N yí lɛ gàà.	I'm tired.
	N tíee.	I'm hot.
	N lídìkʊʊ lɛ. or N lídìzɛ.	I'm dirty.
	N tílɛɛ̀ lɛ. or M munúu.	I'm dusty.
2.	zúlú	to bathe
	____ pɛ́lɛ́	to wash ____
	E e kɔ̀ pɛ́lɛ́.	He washed his hands.
	____ ɓèlè	to eat ____
	lé ɓèlè, pɛ ɓèlè	to eat
	____ kpàà	to cook ____
	gbɔɔ kpàà	to cook
3.	weî, sópu	soap
	zúlʊ́ kà	bath house
	zúlú píé	bathing place
	yí píé	sleeping place
	N yí píé lɛ mɛ́ɛzàá?	Where can I sleep?
	gboká	latrine

B. Food and Drink

1.	léɓèlè	food (in general)
	léɓèlè aà ma	'the food is ready'
	ɓèlèpɛ	a particular piece of food
	ɓòo yíí	soup (food eaten on rice)
	ɓòo yí sɛlɛ	thin soup (no greens in it)
	tóṹ yíí	palm butter
	ɓu (man)	(cooked) rice
	fufú	foofoo
	ɓilé	bread
	tóṹ nyɛ̀ɛ̀	chicken egg
2.	kɔ́fì	coffee
	tíì	tea
	fántà	soft drink
	kɔlɔyɔ	bamboɔ wine
	tóṹyɔ	palm wine
3.	miná	spoon
	pléti	plate
	kɔbà	bowl
	gbɔɔ	pot

C. How is the food?

Léɓèlè lɛ kpɛ?	How is the food?
Lɛ néínɛi.	It's sweet; it's good.
Lɛ tíee.	It's hot (temperature).

Lɛ dɔ́ɔ́lɔ́.	It's cold.
Lɛ nyɔ́ɔ̀.	It's bitter.
à kponɔ́ɔ̀ lɛ.	It's sour.
Súò lɛ à mɔ̀ {kpókpó. dúó.}	There's too much pepper in it.
Wɛî lɛ à mɔ̀ {kpókpó. dúó.}	There's too much salt in it.

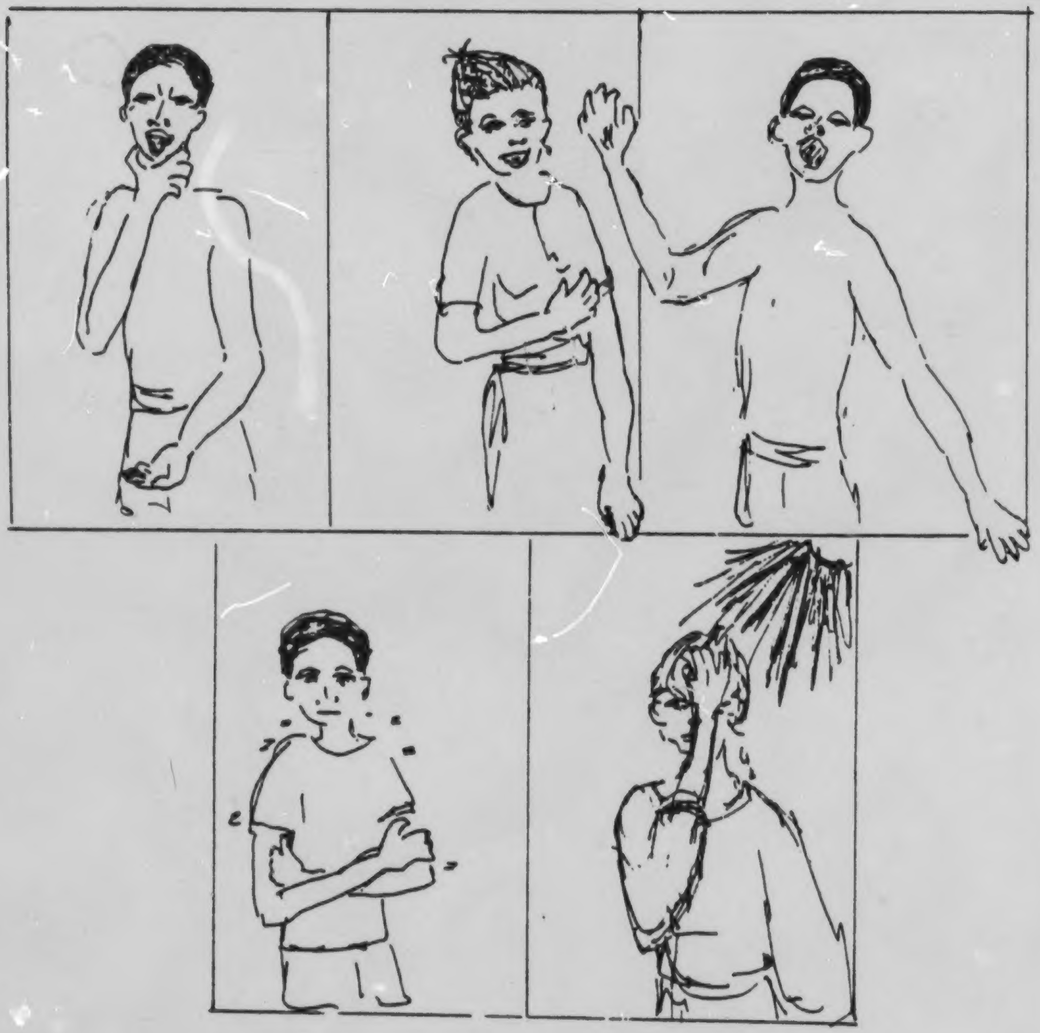
D. Too, very

Lɛ nɛ́ínɛi dúó.	It's {too very} sweet/good.
Lɛ nɛ́ínɛi kpókpó.	"
Lɛ dúó nɛ́ínɛi.	"
Lɛ kpókpó nɛ́ínɛi.	"

The words dúó and kpókpó, both meaning 'too, very', seem to be completely interchangeable.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

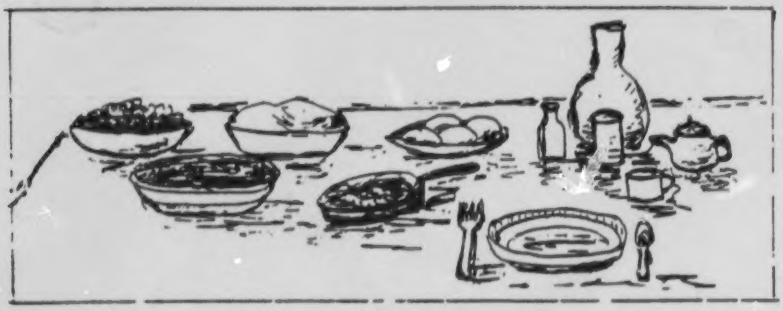
A. Picture Drills - Hungry, Thirsty, etc.



Q:	Mɛ́ e i kɛ?	What's wrong with you?
A:	____ lɛ́ n kɛ.	I'm ____.
	N ____.	

Q: Mɛ́ ɓa nàà ɓa kɛ?	What do you want to do?
A: ṉ́ǹ nàà n ________.	I want to _____.

B. Picture Drill - Food and Drink



Questions:

Mɛ́ e ké?	
____ lɛ mɛ́?	
Mɛ́ ɓà nàà ɓa ɓèlè?	What do you want to eat?
Mɛ́ ɓà nàà ɓa mi?	What do you want to drink?

C. Tastes

Get together some food items with specific tastes: a lemon, a kola nut, sugar, etc.

Q: Pɛ́ e kéa lɛ kpɛ?	How is this?
A: Lɛ _______.	It's _____.
Q: Lɛ _____ dűő/kpőkpő?	Is it too ___?

D. Translation - Conjoined Subjects

1. You and I are eating here.
2. You and he went home.
3. He and I will come tomorrow.
4. You and they haven't eaten.
5. We and they can help you.

E. Translation - Modals

1. I have to go home now.
   - " eat something.
   - " go to the market.
   - " sell my things.
   - " look for my friends.

2. Keeping the second half of the above sentences the same, substitute different modal expressions:

   I'm able to ____.

   I should ____.

   I mignt ____.

   I might not ____.

   I want to ____.

F. Transformation - Emphatic Sentences, Questions

1. Write five Mano sentences. Then form as many different emphatic sentences from each one as possible.

   Example:

Ko ɓu lɔ́ yalá.	We bought rice yesterday.
Ko lɛ́ ko ɓu lɔ́ yalá.	It's us who bought rice yesterday.
ɓu lɛ́ ko à lɔ́ yalá.	It's rice we bought yesterday.
Yalá lɛ́ ko ɓu lɔ́ gbaa.	It's yesterday we bought rice.

2. Using the same sentences, form as many different questions as possible. You may need to ask your tutor for help with some of the questions. Try to find out more about how questions are formed. Which question words move to the front and which stay in their normal place in the sentence? What is the difference between sentences with mɛ́, 'what' and sentences with other fronted question words?

LESSON FOURTEEN

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V. VOCABULARY LIST

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Which do you want?

A:	Sɔ ma lɔ́ gɔ́ɔ́pàa lɛ́ e kéa. à̲ kpɛ lɛ́ ɓà nàà à ká?	This is the cloth I bought in Ganta. Which do you want?
B:	à̲ zolo lɛ sɛ̀ kɛ à púlú lɛ sɛ̀. ń̲ǹ̲ nàà à púlú ká kpókpó.	The red one is good, but so is the white one. I like the white one (better).
A:	Lɛ gbùò ɛ dìà à zolo là.	It is bigger than the red cloth.
B:	à̲ gbùò mia lɛ́ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ ká?	How much did the bigger one cost?
A:	O pɛlèe lɛ doó, ɓii sɔ bɛ́ĩ́ mi lɛ gbínì ɛ dìà a gbúó mia là.	Their cost is the same, because the small cloth is heavier than the big one.
B:	I dàsɔ̀ lɔ́?	Did you buy any shirts?
A:	m̲̀m̲̀. Dàsɔ̀ yíe ma gɛ̃̀ yíɛ lɛ́ɛ.	Yes. This is the best one I saw there.
B:	m̲̀m̲̀, lɛ sɛ̀, kɛ ńǹ wɔ̃ yí dɔ. lɛ́ɛ̀ lo kɛɛ̀ m mɔ̀ peetĩ́.	Yes, it looks good, but I think it's too small for me.
A:	Lɛ sɛ̀, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo bɛ̀i m mɔ̀.	That's all right, it will fit me.
B.	ń̲ǹ̲ lo sɔ ɛ kéɛ síi. ń̲ǹ̲ lo a sɔ̃̀ɔ̃ nɔ́ tòò.	O.K., I'm taking this cloth. I will pay you tomorrow.

Text - Nyàá

Nyàá lèegévɔ o yààka. Ye lɛ́ ɛ mi gbùò káa, kɛ ye wá o lììdíɛ́ ká. à lììdíɛ́ Sèé lɛ́ ɛ o gbùò mi káa. à yé e tóɔ, o dɛɛ ɛ dìà Nyàá là. Wá lɛ nɛ́fú ká. Lɛ tiã́ nɛ́fú ká kɛ ɛ́ ló kiikɛì· Mia à yé e tó séîséîɛ. óò ló kiikɛì. Nyàá tó pɛ́lɛ yí lɛ sɛ̀ ɛ dìà ɛ́ ló kiikɛì là, kɛ à dàa lɛ́ɛ̀ à kɛ ɛ́ lóɔ. Pèé lɛ nɛ́fú yààka. Kííkɛì lɛ sɛ̀ à lɛ̀ɛ. Là wéî lɛ sɛ̀. Nɔ́ɔ̀ɓe dɛɛ óò nàà Nyàá à ká ɛ dìà Sèé là, ɓii à sɔ̀ɔ̃ lɛ sɛ̀. Lúó gbṹʊ ká, Sèé lɛ́ɛ̀ o kɛ nyɔ́ɔ̀.

Nyaa has three brothers. He is the biggest one, but he is not the oldest. His brother See is the oldest. The others are younger than Nyaa. Wa is the youngest. He is still too young to go to school. All the others go to school. Nyaa likes staying home better than going to school, but his father makes him go. Pee is the third child. He likes school. He is smart. The younger boys like Nyaa better than See because his ways are good. Sometimes, See treats them badly.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Ordinal Numbers

Only the first two ordinal numbers differ from the cardinal numbers.

à ɓɛ́ìzɛ	the first one
à gbiapíé	the second one
à yààka	the third one
à yììsɛ	the fourth one

However, when used with a noun, the ordinal numbers may be part of a construction similar to the one used for 'the (adj.)-er one.'

mi à yààka mi	the third person
kii à sɔ́ɔ́li mi	the fifth book

Going along with the cardinal numbers are these expressions:

à láàsí	the last one
a yé e nuɔ	the next one.

B. Comparatives

1. (adj.)-er than

The comparative construction makes use of the verb dìɛ̀, 'to pass'. For example, to say 'He is bigger than me.', you say the literal equivalent of 'he is big it passes me.' In English, if it is clear who or what the subject is being compared to, this may be left out of the sentence, as in 'He is bigger.' But Mano comparative sentences must always mention what the subject is being compared to.

The complete comparative construction is as follows:

$$\underline{\text{ S }}\ \text{ɛ}\begin{Bmatrix}\text{dìɛ̀ à ká}\\ \text{dìà}\end{Bmatrix}\underline{\qquad}\ \text{là.}$$

Note: dìɛ̀ à ká is usually abbreviated dìà.

Examples:

Sèé lɛ gbùò ɛ dìɛ̀ à ká Kɔ̀ɔ́ là.	See is bigger than Kɔɔ.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ wèè gágà ɛ dìà n nà.	He talks louder than I do.
Ye wá gbeǐ ɛ dìà n nà.	He isn't as tall as I am.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ wèè sɛ̀ ɛ dìà kɛ ɛ pɛ bɛ̀ɛ̃ là.	He talks better than he writes.

2. The (adj.)-er one

Although it is not possible in Mano to make a statement like 'he is taller,' without stating who he is taller than, it is possible to say 'the taller one', using this construction:

à ____ mi(a)	the ____er one

Examples:

ńǹ nàà à gbùò mia ká.	I like the bigger one.
Yílíɛ à gbeǐ mi lɛ́ e kéa.	This is the taller tree.
Sɔ ɓɛ́ǐ mi lɛ gbínì ɛ dìà a gbùò mia là.	The smaller cloth is heavier than the the bigger one.

3. Too ___

Mano, like Liberian English, does not have a direct way of expressing the meaning of 'too', as in 'it is too small', 'you are too young to go there', etc. In Mano, these sentences would be translated the same as 'it is small', 'you are young to go there'.

The Liberian 'too' meaning 'very' can be translated as dúó or kpókpó.

Examples:

Dàsɔ̀ e kéa lɛ péǐ m mɔ̀.	This shirt is (too) small for me.
Dàsɔ̀ e kéa à kòlò lɛ, kɛ n ló à ká sukúù.	This shirt is (too) old to wear to school.

4. Superlatives

Superlatives like 'biggest' and 'best' are not directly expressed in Mano. The regular form of the adjective is used, and the fact that it has a superlative meaning must be guessed from the context.

Examples:

Ye lɛ́ ɛ mi gbùò ká pɛ́lɛ yíɛ.	He's the big person in town. (i.e., the biggest person)
à yé kpɛ lɛ́ e gágà?	Which one is strong (stronger, strongest)?

III. VOCABULARY

A. Comparisons

1. the same - doó

o doó	they are the same (they are one)
o wá doó	they are not the same
o nyiɛ́ lɛ doó	their color is the same

2. different - gbɛ́ɛ

o gbɛ́ɛ	they are different
mi gbɛ́ɛ	(a) different person
gbɛ́gbɛ	different-different

3. equal - bɛ́í

ko bɛ́í lɛ	we are equal

4. better - sɛ̀, gbɛĩ

à yé e kéa lɛ sɛ̀ a yéa là.	This one is better than that one.
N zì lɛ gbeĩ.	Mine is better.

5. enough, too much, more, a lot - bɔ́ko

ìí gbaa ŋ gba léɓèlè bɔ́ko ká.	You didn't give me enough food.
à bɔ́ko lɛ n kɛ̀lɛ̀.	I have too much (enough).
ń nàà ɓu bɔ́ko ká.	I want more rice.

B. Physical Description

lɛ sɛ̀	he/she is good-looking
lɛ yɔ́ɔ̀	he/she is ugly
lɛ lɔkɛ sɛ̀	he/she looks good
lɛ tii	he/she is dark
lɛ zóló	he/she is bright (light-colored)
à yí lɛ gágà	he/she is strong
à fĭ lɛ́ e nyɛ	he/she is weak/tired
à fíɛ lɛ	he/she is lazy
à gbĭ lɛ pɛǐ́	he/she is thin
lɛ bɔ̃́bɔ̃	he/she is very fat
à ɓɛlɛ́ɛ̀ lɛ	he/she is fat
(ɓɛlɛ́ - human fat)	
lɛ gbeĭ	he/she is tall
lɛ gbúú	he/she is short

C. Mental and Emotional States

1. Phrases

à gé lɛ́ɛ̀ li.	He is happy.
à zo lɛ́ɛ̀ da zía.	She is sad.
à wɛlɛ lɛ nyɔ́ɔ̀ (n lɛ̀ɛ).	He is angry (at me).
à wɛlɛ félée lɛ.	She is lucky.
à wɛlɛ pɛ́lɛ́ lɛ.	He is frisky.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ wee yɔ́ɔ̀ kpókpó.	She is quarrelsome.
à sɔ̃̀ɔ̃ lɛ sɛ̀.	His ways are good.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ ɓɛ́ɛlɛ kɛ.	She is friendly.

2. Words

yéí	a laugh
yéí sí (___mɔ̀)	to laugh (at ___)
yéí mɔ̀ɔ̀mɔ	to smile
yéízɛ	funny
yɛ́lɛ	shame
yɛ́lɛ kɛ (___lɛ̀ɛ)	to be ashamed (of ___)
nyɛyí	tears
gbóó ɓo	to cry
yéízɛ	sad
yóló	vexation, anger
yóló sí ({___ mɔ̀ ___ lɛ̀ɛ})	to get vexed (at ___)

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Translation - Comparatives

Write a Mano translation of these sentences and correct them with your tutor.

He is the oldest man in town.
My dog is bigger than your dog.
Give me more rice.
All men are equal.
She cooks better than you do.
The heavier cloth is better.
The second one is worse than the first.
This one is different.

B. Transformation - Mental States

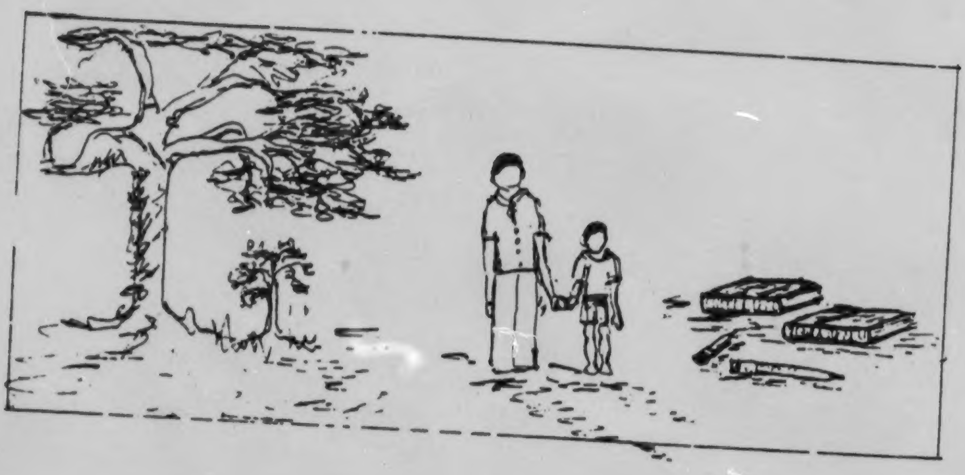
Take the phrases in section III.C and rewrite them: change the subjects, add different objects where possible, change tenses, phrase them as commands.

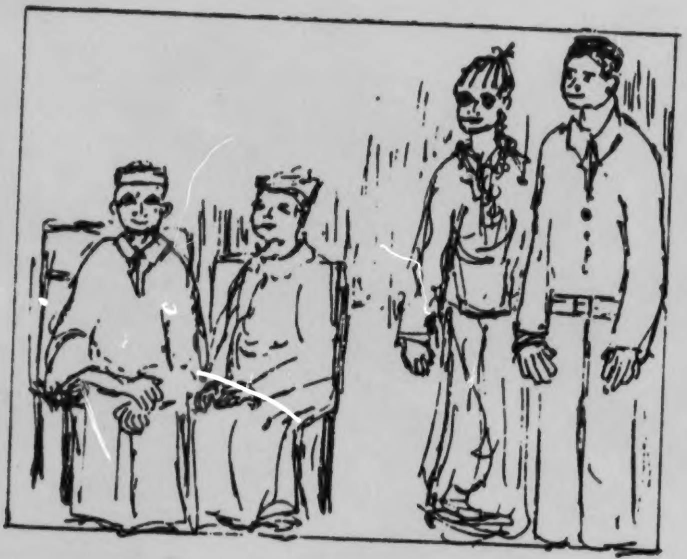
It may be necessary to get some help from your tutor. Use this exercise as a way of exploring the potentialities of Manɔ on your own.

C. Pictures - Comparison and Description

Describe the pictures below to your tutor as completely as you can. Point out what things are the same, and what are different. Explain how they are different or alike.

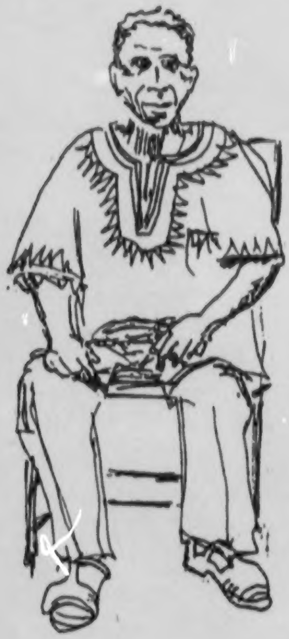
Have your tutor ask you further questions about the pictures: Which one is bigger? Is this the same as this? and so on.





D. Directed Composition - Description

1. Write a descriptive paragraph about the man in the picture below. Tell what he looks like, and what you think his personality is like.



2. Pick a person that both you and your tutor know. Without giving a name, describe the person to your tutor. Your tutor must try to guess who you are describing. If your information is insufficient, he may ask you further questions.

LESSON FIFTEEN

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III. VOCABULARY - Sometimes, always - lúó ___ ká; The beginning, the end; For ___ hours/days; Since, ago; Day and month names; Weather and sky; Weather phrases

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Weather

A:	Lɛɛyí lɛ́ ɛ bǎ lɔ́ɔ́mɛtúó lúó káa, ɛ bǎ gbùò.	The rain that came on Friday was hard.
B:	Fǎǎ ɛ dìè gágà?	Did the wind blow hard?
A:	m̀m̀, fǎǎ ɛ dìè, gbánà áà wei.	Yes, the wind blew, and there was thunder and lightning.
B:	O, lɛ̀ n kɛ à mɔ̀ɔ, gbánà lɛ̀ɛ́ gbaa wei yí.	Oh, where I was, there wasn't any thunder and lightning.
A:	E wei gágà zezàá. N kɛ túó pìè.	It was very loud here. I was scared.
B:	Lɛɛyí lɛ́ɛ̀ bǎ zèe nyɔ́ɔ̀?	Has it been raining here very much?
A:	Gbàaò, lúó lɛ́ lɛɛyí ɛ bǎ káa, lɛ́ fláde lúó wà sɔ́nde lúó ká.	No, the (only) days when it rained were Friday and Sunday.
B:	Lɛɛyí lɛ̀ɛ́ bǎ nyɔ́ɔ̀. Lɛɛyípɛ̂ lɛ́ɛ̀ túó fɛ̀ɛ̀.	There's not very much rain. The rains are late.

Text - Seasons in Liberia

Nyɛ́nɛpɛ̋ lɛ́ e ko sɛ́lɛ́ yíɛ, lɛ mɛnɛ yȉìsɛ ká, wɛ̀lɛ̀ Nɔvɛ́mɔ mɔ̀ í ló Máà mɔ̀. Gó Nɔvɛ́mɔ mɔ̀ɔ í ló mɔsimɛnɛ mɔ̀ɔ, a kɛ nɛ́nɛ́ lɛ́ɛ̀ lo bímíɛ. Lɛkpɛ́í káa, lɛ́ɛ̀ kɛ tíee.

Lɛɛyí bɛ́i̋zɛ lɛ́ɛ̀ bă Éplɛ yí. Lɛɛyí găgbèȉpìè bɛ́i̋zɛ lɛ́ɛ. Făă lɛ́ɛ̀ dìè lúóɛ ká. A kɛ lúő gbṹũ káa, nyɛ́nɛ lɛ́ɛ̀ bí.

Lɛɛyí kpókpó lɛ́ɛ̀ bă twɛ́nɛsée̋ mɛnɛ ká. Mɛnɛ lɛɛyí ɛ bă à ká kpókpóɔ, lɛ́ ɛ tɔ́ɔ́ Zúláà wà ɔ́gɔ wà Sɛtɔ̃ba. ɔ́gɔ yíɛ, lɛɛyí lɛ́ɛ̀ bă lúó pèètɛ mɔ̀, lúó gbṹũ ká.

Atóbà yíɛ, făă lɛ́ɛ̀ nu zeí̋. Lɛɛyípɛ̋ lɛ́i̋ntópìè lɛ́ɛ.

The dry season in this country lasts four months, from November to March. From November to December the nights are usually cold. During the day it is warm.

The first rain comes in April. This is the beginning of the rainy season. There are storms then (but) usually the sun shines.

The real rainy season starts in July. The months when it rains a lot are (called) July, August, and September. In August it rains for two days sometimes.

In October the storms come again. This is the end of the rainy season.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are noun phrases like 'the man who I saw', 'the way that he did it', or 'the ones who went home'. They consist of a noun, followed by a sentence describing the noun. In English these phrases always make use of relative words like 'who', 'that', and 'what', but in Mano there are no equivalent words to mark relative clauses. Instead, Mano relative clauses can be formed as follows:

noun - sentence - a

The noun in the sentence which would be the same as the head noun is replaced by a pronoun. The definite article is attached to the final word of the relative clause.

Examples:

pɛ́ ko lo à kɛ-ɛ	the thing we're going to do
gɔ̃́ n yábó kɛ à mɔ̀-ɔ	the man (that) I work with
pɛ́lɛ ma yí-ɛ	the town I'm in

The emphatic particle lɛ́ may be inserted right after the head noun, particularly when the pronoun referring to the head noun is the subject of the modifying sentence.

sukúù lɛ́ n ló à mɔ̀-ɔ	the school I go to
lɛɛyí lɛ́ e bă sɔ̃́nde lúó káa	the rain that came on Sunday

Relative clauses can occur any place in a sentence where nouns can occur.

subject - Gɔ̃́ n yábó kɛ à mɔ̀ɔ lɛ́ɛ̀ gó Gbăká.	The man I work with comes from Gbarnga.
object - Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo pɛ́ ko lo à kɛɛ zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ ko lɛ̀ɛ.	He will show us what we are going to do.

Sometimes a long relative can be moved to the front of the sentence, with a pronoun filling its normal place in the sentence.

Example:

Zi ko lo à kɛ à káa, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo à zɔ̀ɔ̀ ko lɛ̀ɛ.	He will show us the way to do it.

B. From ___ to ___

This expression is translated into Mano by what is basically two phrases joined together: the first starting with the verb gó, 'come from' or wɛ́lɛ́, 'get up, start from', and the second using the verb ló, 'go'. The expression can describe both a physical distance, such as 'from Monrovia to Ganta', or a period of time, such as 'from January to March.'

The following examples should give an idea of the ways the expression can be used:

ŋ gó Gbăká lɛ́ n ló Yílà.	I went from Gbarnga to Yilah.
Wɛ́lɛ́ Gbăká í ló Găăpà lɛ dálà pèètɛ fítì.	From Gbarnga to Ganta is $2.50.
Gó kii doó e ló kii sáládoó óò ló kiikɛì Yílà.	From first grade to sixth grade they go to school in Yilah.
Lɛ̀ n kɛ kɛɛ̀ sɔ́ɔ́li káa í ló ɛ ɓo n kɛ vŭ doó mɔ̀ɔ, n kɛ Dukɔ́ɔ̀.	From the time I was five to when I was ten, I lived in Monrovia.

III. VOCABULARY

A. Time Expressions: lúó ___ ká

There is a fairly large class of time expressions formed by the pattern /lúó ___ ká/. These words, like most Mano time expressions, go either at the end, or occasionally, at the beginning, of the sentence. They never occur in the middle of a sentence, as their English equivalents can.

Examples:

I nu lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀ lúó maà zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ɔ̃ ká.	You should come on time (the time I showed you).
Lúó gbṹʊ̃ ká, n̂ǹ kii dàã̀ bíɛ̃́.	Sometimes, I study at night.

The first examples show how a number of different expressions can be formed by using a relative clause or other modifier. Some of the more common expressions are listed below:

lúó séĩ́ ká	all the time, every day
lúó gbṹʊ̃ ká	sometimes, (occasionally)
lúó dɔ̃̀ ká	some time (at some particular time)
lúó doó ká	at the same time
dɛ̀ɛ̀ká	right now (pretty soon)
dɛ̀ɛ̀zɛ̀	a little while ago
à bɛ́ĩ́ ká	a little, a little while

B. The Beginning and the End

In the next lesson you will learn the expressions /gbɛ̃̀ ___-a mɔ̀/, 'to start ___-ing' and /nyiɛ ___-a mɔ̀/, 'to finish ___-ing'. These are used when talking about performing an action or process. Some slightly different expressions can be used to refer to the beginning or end of an event seen as a single block of time.

Examples:

gbèîpìà	the beginning
Tòò lɛ́ e sukúù gbèîpìè káa.	Tomorrow is the beginning of school.
léǐtópìà	the end
Lɛɛyípɛ̃́ léǐtópìà lɛ́ɛ.	This is the end of the rainy season.

Note also:

Sukúù léǐ e tó yalá.	School ended yesterday.

C. For ___ hours/days/...

Several different postpositions can be used, apparently interchangeably, to translate English 'for (a period of time)'. These are mɔ̀, ká, and sometimes píé.

Examples:

ńǹ lo yìì zèe kɛɛ̀ pèètɛ ká.	I will live here for two years.
N yábó kɛ áwà pèètɛ mɔ̀.	I worked for two hours.
N kɛ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀ áwà pèètɛ píé.	I've been here for two hours.

D. Since, Ago

These words are not expressed directly in Mano. An English sentence containing 'since' or 'ago' will have to be rephrased in order to translate it into Mano. Some examples are shown below:

I've been here since yesterday.	N kɛ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀ yalá. (I was here yesterday.)
He hasn't come again since I saw him.	Lɛ̀ɛ́ nu nɛ́ zeǐ, lúó lɛ́ ma gɛ̀ă ká. (He hasn't come again, the time I saw him.)
I came one hour ago.	N nu kɛa, áwà doó aà dìè. (When I came here, one hour has passed.)

E. Day and Month Names

At one time there were commonly used Mano words for the days of the week, and months of the year. Some Mano speakers still know some of these words, but they are not in common use any more. Nowadays, the English words are used, even by people who know little or no English. Since they have been borrowed into Mano, their pronunciation has been adjusted to accommodate Mano speech habits. The lists below show how these words are commonly pronounced in Mano.

Months		Days	
zɛ́nuári	zuláà	mɔ́nɛ lúó	sɔ́nɛ lúó
fébiwári	ɔ́gis, ɔ́gɔ	túde lúó	
máa	sɛtɔ̃́bɔ	wɛ́mɛze lúó	
éplɛ	atóbɔ	tɔ́ze lúó	
mée	novɛ́mɔ	fláde lúó	
zṹũ	dizɛ́mɔ	sáade lúó	

Some of the months and days also have other commonly used names, like these below:

mɔsi mɛnɛ	December (Christmas month)
twɛ́nɛsɛ̂ɛ mɛnɛ	July (26th month)
lɔ́ɔ́mɛtúó lúó	Friday

You may wish to find out whether your tutor knows any other names for any of the months or days.

To say 'It is January/February/etc.', use this expression:

(month name) lɛ́ kɔa à yía. We are in __________.

F. Vocabulary - Weather and Sky

fãã	wind	kpṍũ là	the world
gbánà	thunder, lightning	lɛí	the sky
kpóṹɓɛlɛ̀	rainbow	lɛyí, lɛɛyí	rain

lɛyípɛ̃́	rainy season	nyɛ́nɛ, ŋlɛ̃́	the sun
lúélúé	clouds	nyɛ́nɛpɛ̃́	dry season
mɛnɛ, mlɛ̃́	the moon; month	siɛ̃́ŋle	the stars

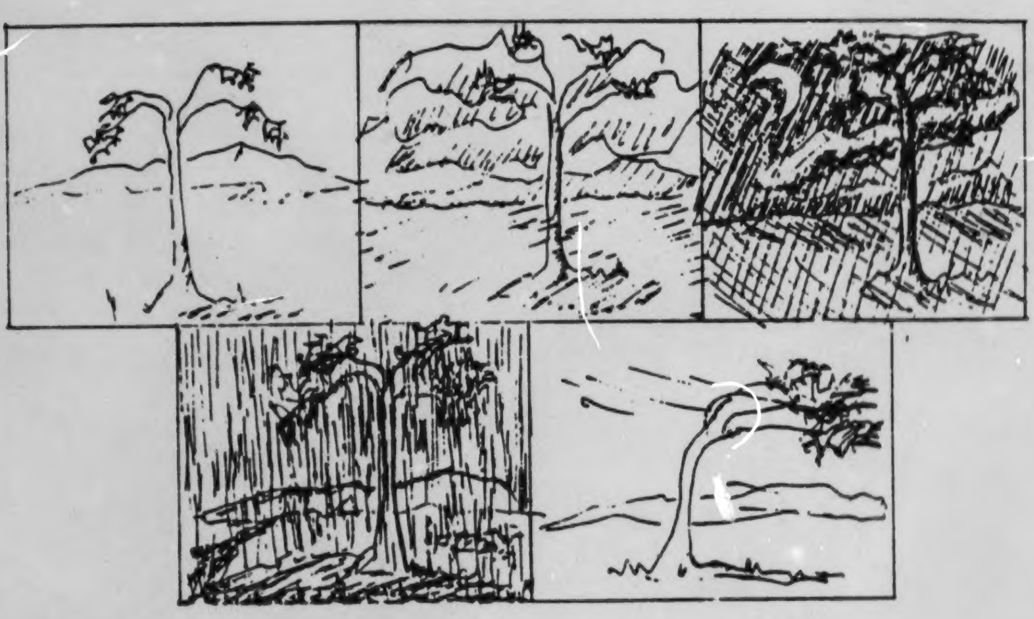
G. Weather Phrases

Nyɛ́nɛ lɛ bí pìè.	The sun is shining.
Făă lɛ {pìè dìè} pìè.	The wind is blowing.
Lɛyí lɛ bă pìè.	It is raining.
Lɛyí lɛ yókóyoko.	It is foggy.
Nyɛ́nɛ lɛ gá(g)à.	It is hot (the sun is strong).
Nyɛ́nɛ lɛ yɔ́ɔ̀.	It is hot.
Lɛyí lɛ gbùò.	The rain is hard.
Nɛ́nɛ́ lɛ nu pìà.	It is cold.
Făă lɛ gá(g)à.	The wind is strong.
Nyɛ́nɛ aà wɛ́lɛ́.	The sun has risen.
Nyɛ́nɛ lɛ ló pìè táă.	The sun is going down.
Lɛɛ tíle lɛ.	It is dark (has gotten dark).
Lɛɛ pú lɛ.	It is light.
Bíɛ̃ lɛ mi pìè.	It (the night) is getting dark.

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Pictures - Weather

1. Identify the pictures according to your tutor's one-sentence description of them.
2. Describe the objects and events in each picture as your tutor points to it.



B. Translation - Mano to English

Gó kɛɛ̀ à mɛnɛ ɓɛ́ì́zɛ mɔ̀ɔ, ı ló à mɛnɛ yììsɛ mɔ̀ɔ, lɛ nyɛ́nɛpɛ́ ká. Gó yí í ló à mɛnɛ à yé e tóɔ mɔ̀ɔ, e gó à mɛnɛ sáládoó mɔ̀ɔ, lɛ lɛɛyípɛ́ ká.

C. Translation - English to Mano

1. I was in Monrovia from December to February.
2. I lived there for three months.
3. The day that I came here, it was raining.
4. In May, there is sometimes thunder and lightning.
5. When is the beginning of school?
6. Who is the man you were talking to?
7. School ended two weeks ago.
8. In January, the sun always shines.

D. Composition Topics

1. Tell where you have lived, how long you stayed in each place, and what you did there.
2. Describe your favorite kind of weather, and why you like it. Tell what kind of weather you like the least.
3. Tell what things happen during the different months of the year.

LESSON SIXTEEN

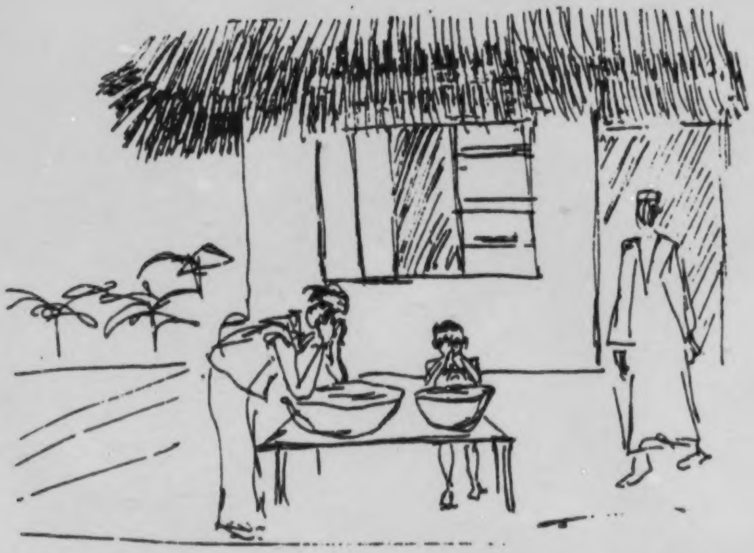


TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. TEXTS

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES - Consecutive Tense; If/When; Reflexive ε - 'his own'; To start ___ing, to finish ___ing

III. VOCABULARY - Personal Habits; Clothing; Early, Late, On Time

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

I. TEXTS

Dialogue A

Lèe: Wuá aà vùò?	Is Wa awake?
Kɔ̀ɔ́: m̀m̀, ɛ wɛ̀lɛ̀ pɛlɛ̀.	Yes, he got up early.
L: Sɔ̀ɔ̀ lɛ à mɔ?	Is he dressed?
K: èè, n à sɔ̀ɔ̀ da à mɔ̀, lɛ̀ n à wīī́ duo.	Yes, I put on his clothes, then I brushed his hair.
L: I à wɛlɛ pɛ́lɛ́?	Did you wash his face?
K: ɛ lílì kū zeī́.	He got dirty again.

Dialogue B

Lèe: Nɔ̀ɔ́, ɓaà i sɔ̃́ ɓo nɛ́?	Nɔɔ, have you brushed your teeth yet?
Nɔ̀ɔ́: m̀m̀, maà à kɛ gbaa.	Yes, I've already done it.
L: ɓaà i kɔ̀ wà wɛlɛ pɛ́lɛ́?	Have you washed your hands and face yet?
N: Gbàaò. N o pɛ́lɛ́ pìè dɛ̀ɛ̀ká.	No. I'm washing them just now.
L: ɓaà nyɛa, lo i lìi naa. Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo ɓà wúɔ kɛ.	When you have finished, go look for your sister. She will plait your hair.

Text

Lúó séî ká, ḿm̀ wɛ̀lɛ̀ pɛlɛ̀. ń̲n̲̂ n wɛlɛ pɛ́lɛ́. ń̲ǹ̲ n sɔ̋ ɓo. ń̲ǹ̲ n sɔ da m mɔ̀. ḿ̲m̲̀ ɓu yɛ̀ɛ̀ ɓèlè. Maà lé ɓèlèa, ńǹ lo yábó píé. ǹ̲ń̲ yábó kɛ sɔ̋nde ká. ń̲ǹ̲ fî dɔ lúɓɛ ká. Maà nyɛ yábó mɔ̀ɔ, ńǹ nu pɛ́lɛi, máà n lé ɓèlè. Maà lé ɓèlèa, ńǹ ló gbɛ́îpíé, máà wèè m ɓɛ́ɛni píé. Bî́a mia to n ló kaî, to ló yí bà.

Every day, I get up early. I wash my face, I brush my teeth. I put on my clothes. I eat some leftover rice. When I have eaten, I go to work. I don't work on Sunday. I rest on that day. When I finish work, I come home and eat. When I have eaten, I go walk about and talk with my friends. When it gets late, I go home, and go to bed.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. Consecutive Tense

A special set of pronouns, shown below, can be used to conjoin two sentences. The special pronoun is used in the subject of the second sentence. This sentence is also marked by changing the tone of the verb to low tone. Note ló → lò, and kɛ́ → kɛ̀ in the examples below.

This consecutive tense is generally used to indicate a time sequence - 'I did this and then I did that' - but it can also be used to connect two non-sequential actions, as shown in the third example below.

Pronoun Set

máà	kɔ́ɔ̀, kɔáà
ɓáà	káà
áà	wáà

Examples:

Lɛ́ e wɛ̀lɛ̀ áà lò sɛ́lɛ́ dò yí.	Then he left and went to another place.
Maà nyɛ yábó mɔ̀ɔ, ńǹ nu pɛ́lɛi, máà n lé ɓèlè.	When I have finished work, I come home and eat.
Lɛ́ɛ̀ ló kiikɛì áà yábó kɛ̀ zeĩ́.	He goes to school and he also works.

B. If/When

When the definite article -a is added to the final word of a sentence, it has the meaning of 'if' or 'when'. The sentence becomes a dependent clause, which must be followed by another sentence.

Examples:

Maà lé ɓèlèa, ńǹ ló gbɛ́ĩ́píé.	When I have eaten, I go walking about.

ɓaà nyɛa, lo i lìi naa.	When you have finished, go look for your sister.
ìí ɓà yábóa kɛɛ, íì lo góo sukúù.	If you don't do your work, you will leave school.

The clause may be preceded by yé or a yé with no change in meaning.

Examples:

A yé sɔ̀ɔ̀ aà kɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ, lɛ́ɛ̀ kaì pɛ́lɛ́.	When the clothes are dry, he washes the floor.
Yé nɛ́fúa e nua, lɛ́ a gèe dɔmìa lɛ̀ɛ.	When the boy came, then he told the chief.

C. Reflexive /ɛ/

In this lesson we learned several verbs which describe an action performed on oneself: to wash one's hands, brush one's teeth, etc. English sentences like 'He washed his hands.' can have two different Mano translations, depending on whether the person washed his own hands or somebody else's.

A special reflexive form of the third person pronoun is used when the subject performs the action on himself. This is e or ɛ, 'his/her own'.

Examples:

ɛ ɛ wɛ́lɛ́ pɛ́lɛ́.	He washed his (own) face.
ɛ à wɛ́lɛ́ pɛ́lɛ́.	He washed his (someone else's) face.

D. To start ___ing, To finish ___ing

In English, the words 'start' and 'finish' can be followed by a noun or by a verb that has been made into a noun: 'I started work', 'I started eating'. This is also true in Mano. A Mano verb can be made into a noun with the suffix that is used for the future tense form. The verbal object takes the postposition mɔ̀.

Examples:

ŋ gbɛ̀ yábó kɛɛ̀ mɔ̀.	I started working.
Maà nyiɛ n lé b̂èlèè mɔ̀.	I've finished eating.

III. VOCABULARY

A. Personal Habits

1.	vùò	Wake up
	aà vùò	He is awake.
	wɛ́lɛ́	Get up (out of bed).
	wɔ tã́ã̀	Lie down.
	aà wɔɔ̀ lɛ tã́ã̀.	He is lying down.
	aà wɔɔ̀ lɛ gbaa là.	He is lying down on the bed.
	___ fĩ́ dɔ	to rest
	m m fĩ́ dɔ pìè.	I'm resting.
	lo yí bà, lo yí zɛ.	Go to sleep.
	lɛ yí bà.	He is asleep (in sleep).
	aà yí zɛ.	He is asleep. (He has fallen asleep.)
2.	___ sɔ̃́ ɓo	to brush one's teeth
	lɛ ɛ sɔ̃́ ɓo pie.	He is brushing his teeth.
	wĩĩ́ duo	to brush one's hair
	wṹɔ kɛ	to plait one's hair
	__ wɛlɛ pɛ́lɛ́	to wash one's face
	__ kɔ̀ pɛ́lɛ́	to wash one's hands
	kpelɛ kã́	to shave (to cut one's beard)
3.	nià	razor
	sɔ̃́ɓoyílí	toothbrush (or cleaning stick)
	gbɛ́sɛ	"

yílífa	comb
kɔ̃́ɔ̃̀	comb
weĩ́	soap; salt
zúlú weĩ́	(bathing) soap
ɓèlè weĩ́	(eating) salt

B. Clothing - Vocabulary

1. bɛ̀i ___ mɔ̀	to fit
à sɔ̀ɔ̀ lɛ̀ɛ́ bɛ̀i à mɔ̀.	His clothes don't fit.
Lɛ bɛ̀i sɛ̀ m mɔ̀.	It fits me well.
X lɛ Y mɔ̀.	Y has X on; Y is wearing X
dàsɔ̀ lɛ à mɔ̀.	He is wearing a shirt.
sɔ̀ɔ̀ lɛ à mɔ̀.	He is dressed. (He has clothes on.)
ɓɔ́ɔ́ lɛ à kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́ mɔ̀.	She has a ring on her finger.
___ sɔ̀ɔ̀ da ___ mɔ̀	put one's clothes on
lɛ à sɔ̀ɔ̀ da pìè à mɔ̀.	He is putting on his clothes.
___ sɔ̀ɔ̀ ɓo ___ mɔ̀	take off one's clothes
n ǹ sɔ̀ɔ̀ ɓo m mɔ̀.	I took off my clothes.
ńǹ lo à sɔ̀ɔ̀ ɓoò à mɔ̀.	I will take off his clothes.
2. gbàweĩ̀	robe
kɛ́lɛ́	head tie
félé	bracelet
yɔ̀ɔ́	necklace, chain

C. Early, Late, On Time

The concepts of being late or being on time cannot be expressed by a single word or phrase in Mano, possibly because they are not an important part of traditional life. Below are some ways of paraphrasing these ideas:

Examples:

Nu lúó maà zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ɔ̃ ká.	Come on time (i.e., the time I have shown you).
I nu-kɛ-lúó aà dìè.	You are late (your coming-time has passed).
Lúó wá gbaa ɓɛ.	It's late (there's no [more] time then).
ɓ̲ĩ́ɛ̃ lɛ mi pìè.	It's getting late (the night is getting dark).

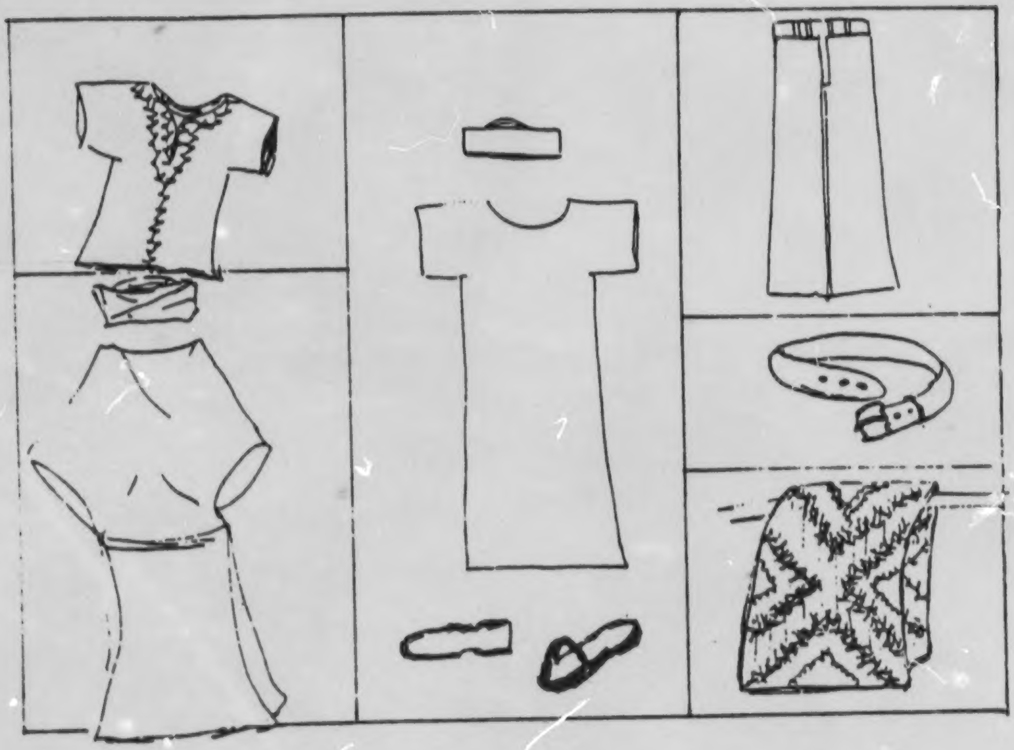
However, 'early' can be translated by the single word p̲ɛ̲l̲ɛ̲̀, meaning both 'early in the morning' and 'early' in general.

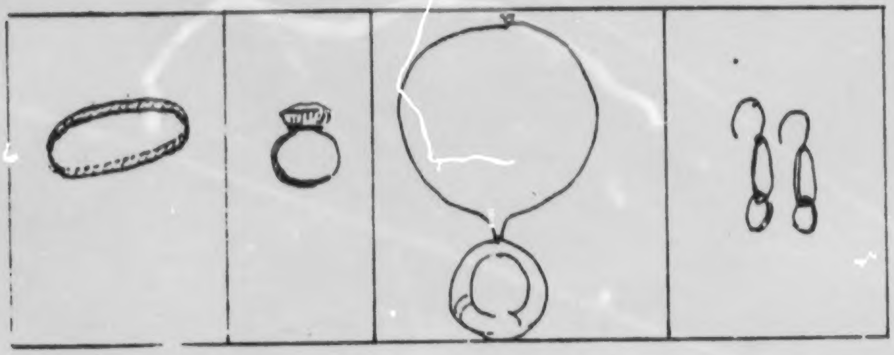
Examples:

E wɛ̀lɛ̀ pɛlɛ̀.	He got up early (in the morning).
E nu pɛlɛ̀.	He came early (ahead of time).

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Pictures - Clothing





1. Substitution Sentences

____ lɛ́ e kéa.

____ lɛ à mɔ̀.

Lɛ ____ dà pìè à mɔ̀.

Lɛ ____ ɓo pìè à mɔ̀.

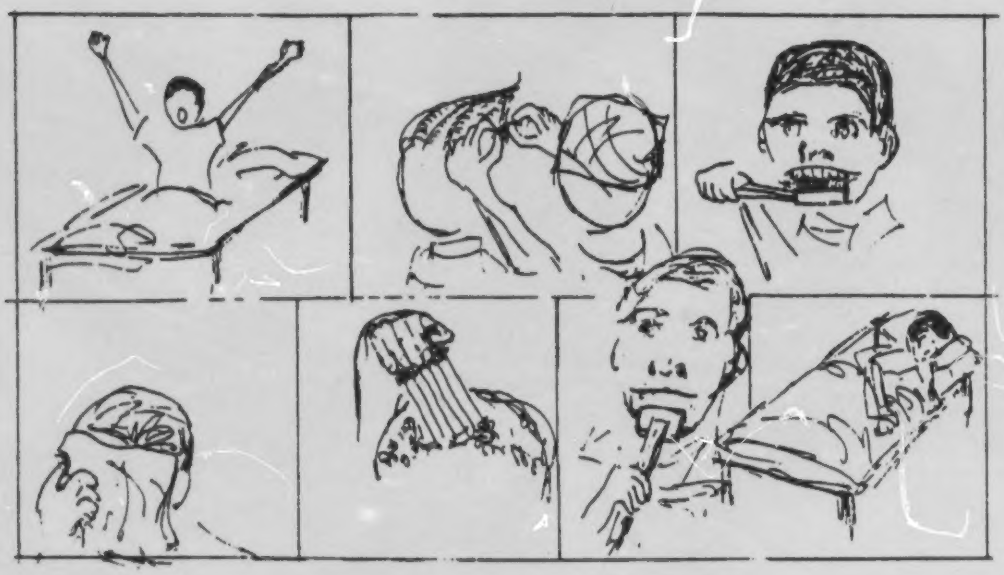
2. Action Drill

Pick two or three items of clothing you can remove without embarrassment - a ring, shoes, watch, belt, etc. - and practice these commands:

I ____ ɓo i mɔ̀.

I ____ da i mɔ̀.

B. Pictures - Personal Habits



Q: Mɛ́ a kɛ pìè?	Q: Mɛ́ e kɛ́ ɓɛ?
A: Lɛ ____ pìè.	A: ____ lɛ́ e kéa.

C. Translation - English to Mano

1. Tomorrow I will go to the market and buy some things.
2. When I finish eating, I will go outside.
3. We went to town and visited some friends.
4. He hasn't started working here yet.
5. If you don't finish it today, you can do it tomorrow.
6. If you go to bed early, you will wake up early.

D. Composition

Describe what you do every day.

LESSON SEVENTEEN

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I. TEXTS

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES - kɛ ... tiǎ - Before; lɛ lɛ́ ___ a - While, When

III. VOCABULARY - Household Tasks; The House

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

I. TEXTS

Dialogue

A:	ɓaà gbɔɔ kpàà aà nyɛ nɛ́?	Have you finished cooking yet?
B:	Gbàaò, n tiá gbɔɔ kpàà pìè.	No, I'm still cooking.
A:	ɓaà gbɔɔ yí pɛ́lɛ́?	Have you washed the dishes?
B:	Gbàaò, ǹń à kɛ nɛ́.	No, I haven't done that yet.
A:	ɓaà kaì gòlò?	Have you swept the floor?
B:	Maà kɛ dɔ́.	I've already done it.
A:	Lɛ sɛ̀. fì bɛ̀i à mɛ̀ i gbɔɔ yí pɛ́lɛ́, yé ɓaà nyɛ i lé ɓèlè pìà.	Good. You can wash the dishes when you finish eating.
B:	O.K. Léɓèlè aà lúó gɛ̀.	O.K. The food is ready.

Text - Saye's Work (Housekeeping)

Sèé lɛ kwípúlú píé. Lɛ́ɛ̀ yábó kɛ à mɔ̀ yí. Làapíé lɛ́ɛ̀ ló kiikɛì. Kɛ ɛ tiắ lóo kiikɛìɛ, lɛ́ɛ̀ kaì gòlò áà kaì pɛ kɛ. Aà gó kiikɛìɛ, lɛ́ɛ̀ gbɔɔ kpàà.

Lɛ́ɛ̀ kpàắ wà ɓòo kpàà ɓɛ́ìzɛ. Lɛ ɓòo lɛ́ɛ́ kpàà pìè, ɛ́à ɓu kélé wɔ́ɔ́. Lɛlɛ́ ɓòo ɛ kɛ ma pìèa, aà ɓu yíí yà tíé. Léɓèlè aà maa, óò lo pɛ ɓèlèè.

Lɛ́ɛ̀ sɔ̀ɔ̀ pɛ́lɛ́ lɔ́ɔ́lúó ká. à yé sɔ̀ɔ̀ aà kɔ̀ɔ̀, lɛ́ɛ̀ kaì pɛ́lɛ́.

Saye stays with a Peace Corps man. He works for him there. In the morning he goes to school. Before he goes to school, he sweeps the floor and picks up the house. After school he cooks.

First he cooks greens and fish. (While) he is cooking the greens, he cleans the rice. When the greens are getting ready he puts the rice water on the fire. When the food is ready, they eat.

He washes the clothes on Saturday. When the clothes are dry, he washes the floor.

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. kɛ ... tiǎ - before

These two words combine to form a meaning that might not be expected, given their individual meanings: kɛ , 'that, but' and tiǎ, 'still'.

The full construction is as follows:

Sentence kɛ Subject tiǎ Verb Phrase
'Sentence before sentence'

Note that the second sentence always uses the past tense form of the subject pronoun.

Tiǎ may have the alternate pronunciation tiɛ̌.

Examples:

M m ɓɛ́ɛ gɛ̃̀, kɛ n tiɛ̌ lóo.	I saw my friend, before I went.
Dɔ tǎà kɛ i tiǎ ɓɔ zía là.	Stop before you reach the road.
íì lɛ̀ vɔlɔ kɛ i tiǎ yílí vɔ.	You brush the farm before you cut the trees.
ńǹ lo lé ɓèlèè kɛ n tiɛ̌ lóo m pà.	I will eat before I go home.

B. lɛlɛ́ (Sentence)-a - When, while

To indicate two simultaneous actions lɛlɛ́ is used. The full construction consists of lɛlɛ́ at the beginning of the clause with -a added to the end.

Examples:

Lɛlɛ́ n kɛ lo plè lɔ́ɔ́yía, m m ɓɛ́ɛ gɛ̃̀.	While I was going to the market, I saw my friend.
Lɛlɛ́ o nuɔ, kɛ maà yábó kɛ áwà pèètɛ mɔ̀.	When they came, I had been working for two hours.

Lɛlɛ́ ɓòo ɛ kɛ ma pìea, aà ɓu yíí yà tíé.	While the vegetables have been getting ready, he has put the rice water on the fire.

Notice the contrast between this construction and ayɛ́ (Sentence)-a, which is used when the action of the subordinate clause precedes that of the main sentence.

III. VOCABULARY

A. Household Tasks

There is no Mano noun for houseboy. You must convey this meaning by a phrase like one of the following:

Lɛ́ɛ̀ nyiɛ́ kɛ {káa mɔ̀. / pɛ́lɛ zoée mɔ̀.}	He takes care of the {house. / yard.}
Lɛ ko píé.	He is at our house.

1. Verbs

gòlò	to sweep
E káa wìì gòlò.	He swept the floor.
bée kɛ	to make a bed
káa wìì pɛ kɛ	to pick up a room
kɔ̀ɔ̀	to dry (intrans.)
Sɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ ɛ kɔ̀ɔ̀.	The clothes are dried.
Sɔ̀ɔ̀ kpɔ̃́ nyínɛ wìì ɛ́ kɔ̀ɔ̀.	Put the clothes in the sun to dry.
{kpɔɔ yí / sɔ̀ɔ̀} pɛ́lɛ́	to wash dishes
	" clothes
sɔ̀ɔ̀ ɓolo	to wring clothes
sɔ̀ɔ̀ yɛ́	to fold up clothes

2. Nouns

pāă	broom	zúlú tía	bath tub
páni	pan	sópu	soap
tía	pan, bucket	weí	soap

B. House - Rooms, Furniture, Construction

sìyɛ̀, yàlà pɛ̀...seat

táŋálá...chair

gbóó...bench

tébò...table

bée...bed

gba, kpĩ́ĩ́...sleeping platform

yílí pɛ bée...straw mattress

líí...hammock

sàà...mat

tíé...a fire, a light

tía lɛí pɛ...shelf, meat dryer (above the fire thing)

tíɛ́ da píé...fire-place

gbã́ã́...roof, ceiling (also kitchen)

gbã́ã́ wìì...kitchen (unwalled shelter)

gbã́ã́ lɛí...storage space in roof

sɛ́lɛ́...floor

káa gbĩ mɔ̀...wall

izííyá...ceiling

káa lé...doorway

kpóʊ...door

wínà...window

kaì zi...hallway

ká wúlú...room

yí píé...bedroom (sleeping place)

bálá ká...mud house (wattle and daub)

simɛ́lí ɓilɛ́kɛ ká...cement block house

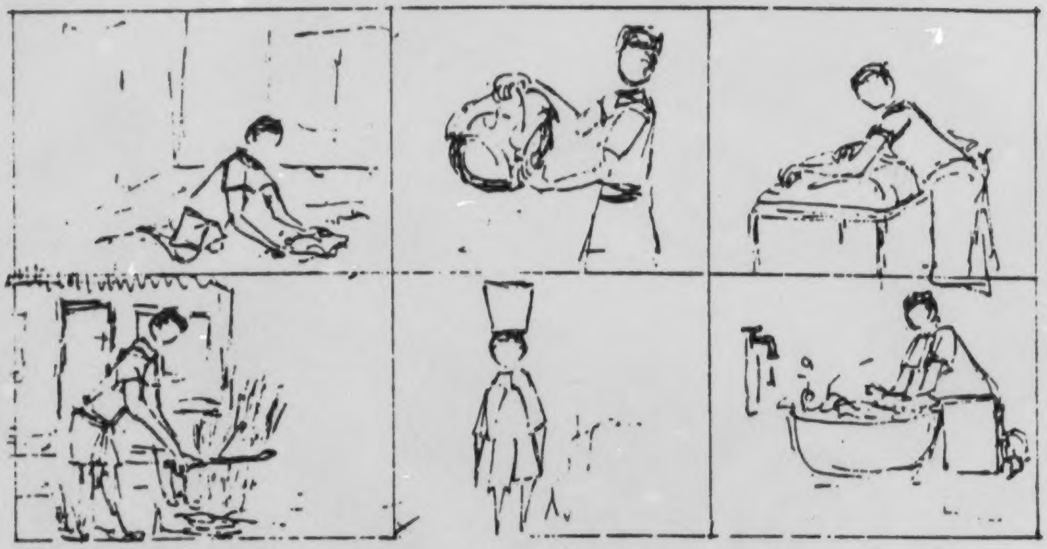
sṹɛ̃́...thatch

zĩ̂...zinc

ɓilɛ́kɛ ká...block house

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Pictures - Household Tasks



1. Learn to identify each picture when your tutor describes it.
2. Tell your tutor what is happening in each picture.
3. Make up a brief story linking together the activities in the pictures.

B. Question and Answer - Household Objects

Go around in your house with your tutor and identify the various objects and parts of the house (ceiling, walls, etc.) you see.

Questions:

Pɔɔ̀ kpɛ lɛ́ o ɓà kaī?

Mɛ́ e ké bɛ?

____ lɛ mɛ́?

C. Translation - English to Mano

1. While you were sleeping, I was studying.
2. I have to finish reading this book before it gets dark.
3. After his friends left, he washed the clothes.
4. I talked to him while he was sweeping the floor.
5. (Write 4 or 5 more similar sentences in Mano).

D. Composition Topics

1. Describe what tasks you do around the house. If you have a houseboy, tell what his duties are, and what your obligations are to him.
2. Describe one room in your house or where you work.

E. Directed Conversation

Have your tutor assume the role of a prospective houseboy. Find out something about him: where he is from, does he go to school, etc. Discuss what you would like him to do for you, how much you can pay him, whether he will stay at your house or come in during the day.

LESSON EIGHTEEN

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III. VOCABULARY - The Farming Cycle; 'Farm', 'To Farm'; Farm Tools; Rice - Stages of Growth; Rice - Preparation for Cooking; Plants; Swamp Rice Growing - Phrases

IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

I. TEXTS

Text - The Farming Cycle

pɛ ɓa kɛ kɛ í tīă gba kɛɛ lɛ́ e kéa. íì ló líé tó ɨ lɛ̀ɛ yíí kŭ kɛ í tiắ à vɔlɔ. aà kɛ nyɛ́nɛpɛ̃́ káa, íì lɛ̀ vɔlɔ kɛ í tiă yílí vɔ. lɛ̀ɛ aà kɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ, to ɓa gèlè. lɛɛyí aà gbɛ̃ gbaa tó íì lɛ̀ taa.

a yé ɓa lɛ̀ aà nyɛ̀ taamɔ̀ɔ, íì mɔ̀ɔ̀ kɛ e tóa kílii ɓu pɛ́nɛ́ɛ ɛ kɛ gbeī. ɓu pɛ́nɛ́ aà ɓɔɔ, a kɛ gbeīgbeīɛ, to i suú wòlò à yí. a yé ɓu aà kɛ wíí pìà, íì mɔ̀ɔ̀ kɛ zéī.

a yé ɓu aà gàa, to i gbɛ̃ gbaa à kắă mɔ̀. to ɓa gbă yèlè kɛ i tiắ à duo gbắắ lɛí. a yé ɓúɔ aà nyɛ kắă mɔ̀ɔ, mía ɓée o gé lɛ́ li. a kɛ ó o lé ɓèlè gbùò.

These are the things you do when you make a farm. First, you clear a spot to show where your farm will be, before you brush it. When it is farming time you brush the farm and then cut the trees. When the brush has dried, then you burn it. When the rain has started then you plant.

When your farm has been planted, you keep off the birds until the rice plants get big. When the rice has grown big, then you weed (in) it. When the seeds get big, you keep away the birds again.

When the rice is ripe then you start harvesting (it). Then you bundle it and put it in a kitchen. When the rice has been harvested, everybody is happy. Then they eat plenty.

Text - Work Groups

Nyɛ́nɛi vɔlɔ̀ɔ̀ lɛ yábó gáà ká. lɛ́ɛ̀ mia gbúnúuzɛ sí. a yé ɓaà kɛ gbũã yíɛ, íì mia gɛ̃̀ óò gbũ i mɔ̀. lúó gbṹũ káa, íì mia fɔ́nɔ́ nu kɛ ó gbũ i mɔ̀. aà kɛ gbũõ lɛ́ɛ̀ nu i píé nyɛ́nɛ yí kɛ ó gbũ i mɔ̀ ó ɓu kã́.

a kɛ gbũõ aà nu i píé nyɛ́nɛyíɛ, íì gbɔɔ kpàà gbùò, toó í kɔlɔ yɔ nu o lɛ̀ɛ. íì ɓɔ̀ zɛ ɔ̀ɔ́ ɓò.

gɔ́a óò nu làapíé toó o gbɛ̃̀ yábó kɛɛ̀ mɔ̀. óò kɔlɔ yɔ mi kɛ ɛ́ gbũ mɔ̀ nu o lɛ̀ɛ kɛ ó yábó kɛ. a yé gɔ̃́ãã waà kɛ yábó kɛ pìàa, lóa o yí ó gbɔɔ kpàà. a yé waà nyɛ gbɔɔ kpààà mɔ̀ɔ, to o gɔ́a súó kɛ kɛ ó nu pɛ ɓèlè. a yé waà nyɛ o lé ɓèlè mɔ̀ɔ,to o ló yábóɔ à léí nyɛɛ.

Brushing a farm is hard work. It takes many people. If you are in a kuu (work group) you can find people to help you. Sometimes you give people a fee to help you. Kuus can also come to help you harvest the rice.

When the kuu comes to your farm, you (should) cook plenty of food, and you bring palm wine for them. You (should) kill a pig or a goat.

The men come in the morning and start working. They drink palm wine to help them work. When the men have been working (a while) the women are there to cook. When they have finished cooking, they call the men to come eat. When they have finished eating, they work until the end (of the job).

II. GRAMMAR AND CULTURAL NOTES

A. kɛ as auxiliary verb in non-verbal sentences

We have already seen kɛ used as an auxiliary verb for the past tense in Lesson 8.

n kɛ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀.	I was here
ɛ kɛ tii.	It was black.
ɛ kɛ yábó kɛ pìè.	He was working.

The same verb can be used with the perfect and future tenses:

maà kɛ Yílà lúó pèètɛ mɔ̀.	I have been in Yilah for two days.
aà kɛ kiikɛìmi ka.	He has been a student.
a yé gɔ̃́ã́ã̀ waà kɛ yábó kɛ pìàa,...	When the men have been working...
ńǹ lo kɛɛ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀.	I will be here.
lɛ́ɛ̀ lo kɛɛ kiikɛìmi ká.	He will be a student.

The same verb can also be translated 'become' when used with adjectives:

ɛ kɛ tii.	It became black (or it was black).
aà kɛ tii.	It has gotten black.
lɛ kɛ pìè tii.	It is getting black.
lɛ́ɛ̀ lo kɛɛ tii.	It will get black (or it will be black).

There is an additional complication to the use of kɛ, which the author does not as yet completely understand. For example, note these sentences:

lɔɔ lɛ́ɛ̀ lo n kɛ.	I will be hungry.
but lɔ̀ɔ e kɛ n kɛ.	I was about to be hungry.
compare with:	
lɔ̀ɔ é kɛ n kɛ pìè.	I was hungry.

B. 'Purpose' Clauses

In an English sentence like 'he came to see me', the underlined clause really means something like 'in order to see me', or 'for the purpose of seeing me.' The same kind of purpose clause is expressed in Mano by a special series of subject pronouns. They are similar to those used in the past tense, but with a high tone. The purpose clause is also frequently introduced by kɛ 'but, that'.

Pronoun Set

ń	I	kó	we
í	you	kɔá	we (inc.)
é	he/she	ká	you (pl)
		ó	they

Examples:

n ló zèe kɛ ḿ mááwè zɔ̀ɔ̀.

I came here to teach Mano.

lúó gbṹṹ ká íì mía fɔ́nɔ́.nu, kɛ ó gbʊ i mɔ̀.

Sometimes you pay people to help you.

lóa o yí ó gbɔɔ kpàà.

Women are there to cook.

C. Then - to vs. gbaa

Although to and gbaa can both be translated as 'then', they correspond to different uses of the English word.

to (also pronounced tó, toó) indicates a sequence of events:

lɛ̀ɛ aà kɔ̀ɔ̀ɔ, to ɓa gèlè.

When the brush is dry, then you burn it.

Notice the use of past tense in the sentence following tc, where English would normally use the present tense.

gbaa is used to indicate a particular point in time:

Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e wɛ̀lɛ̀ gbaa pɛlɛí.

The man left town then. (at that time)

gbaa usually follows the verb immediately.

It is common for both of these words to be used in the same sentence:

a yé ɓu aà gàa, to í gbɛ̃ gbaa à kã́ã mɔ̀.

When the rice is ripe, then you start then (at that time) to cut it.

D. Similes

Comparisons can be made by using a clause introduced by kélɛ. In this use it has the meaning of the English 'like'.

lɛ kélɛ ɓɔ̀ lɛ́ ɓɛ.	He is like a pig.
à kɛ lɔ́lo kélɛ bálá lɛ́ ɓɛ.	Make it soft like mud.

It is also possible to simply add the word kélɛ to the end of a sentence with the meaning 'like this' or 'this much'.

à kɛ gbeĩ́ kélɛ.	Make it this high.
yĩ́ĩa pɛ̃ɛ̃ gbùò kélɛ.	Let in this much water.

III. VOCABULARY

A. The Farming Cycle

Assigning calendar dates to the different stages of the farming cycle is somewhat misleading, since their timing depends mainly on the behaviour of the weather. The farmer must be able to guess fairly accurately when the rains will start. The field must be cleared before the heavy rains begin, so that the brush can dry enough to burn. But after the field is ready the rice must not be planted too soon before the steady rains begin, or it will not grow. Within these bounds the cycle can start anytime in a one or two month period. The stages of the farming cycle and the factors that determine their timing are given below:

1. lɛ̀ yíí kū - to mark the site of the farm. This is done by clearing a small spot in the bush where the farm will be made. It is done during the dry season, after it has been decided where to farm that year.

2. lɛ̀ vɔlɔ - to brush the farm
yílí vɔ - to chop down the trees.

   Towards the end of the dry season, the farmer gets together a work group to clear the farm. First the brush is cleared, then the large trees are cut down. This clearing usually takes place around the time of the first rain storms.

3. lɛ̀ gélé - to burn the farm

   This is done when the sap has dried out of the cut down brush and trees.

4. lɛ̀ taa - to plant

ɓu pɛ̀ʔ - to sow the seeds

First the surface of the soil is broken up with hoes (scratching farm), then the seed is sown by scattering it broadcast. This must be done when the rains are starting to come every few days.

5. mɔ̀ɔ̀ kɛ- to scare away birds

When the rice seedlings are small, they can be eaten by birds. At this time of the year the younger children will stay in the fields all day and keep the birds away by throwing stones.

6. suú ɓo/wòlò ɓu yí- to weed the rice

The field is weeded two or three times, until the rice gets high enough to choke out the weeds.

7. mɔ̀ɔ̀ kɛ

When the rice seeds are almost ripe, the birds must be kept away again until the harvest.

8. ɓu kắ - to harvest, to cut the rice

(ɓu) kpă kɛ - to bundle the rice

ɓu da/duo gbắắ yí - to store the rice

Rice is harvested by cutting it off about six inches from the top of the stalk with [illegible] knife. Then it is tied into bundles. These bundles are stored in the roof of a rice kitchen. The rice is not threshed until it is prepared for eating.

B. 'Farm', 'To farm'

There are several different Mano words for 'farm'. These are given below with some discussion of when each might be used. A farm in Liberia consists of a clearing in the bush near the village. At some seasons the people walk to and from the farm every day. At times when there is a lot of farm work to do, part of the family may live permanently at the farm. There is usually a farm kitchen built at each farm.

nyɛ́nɛ, gba: the farm as a whole. (nyɛ́nɛ is more common.)

lɛ̀ : in this context 'field'. This word can also mean 'garden', 'yard', 'place'; e.g. ɓòo lɛ̀ 'vegetable garden', lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀ 'this place, here.'

C. Farm Tools

gbíè...cutlass (particularly locally made)

gbɔ̀ɔ...axe

fɔ́lɔ...hoe

làà...knife (used for harvesting)

lé...edge of a tool (lit. 'mouth')

lé sí...to sharpen a tool

làà lé lɛ à mɔ̀. The knife is sharp.

làà lé síi lɛ. The knife is sharp.

D. Rice - Stages of Growth

ɓu péné	'seedling, young rice plant'
ɓu péné gbeĩ	'full grown rice plant'
ɓu péné aà kɛ gbùò.	The rice has gotten big (about 2 or 3 feet tall).
lí	'to be rich (to grow well)'
ɓu ɛ lí n kɛ̀lɛ̀.	My rice grows well.
ɓú e kéa lɛ́ɛ̀ lí.	This rice grows well.
sɛ́lɛ́ɛ lí lɛ .	This is rich land (grows crops well).
ɓúɔ lɛ ŋízɛ.	The rice is starting to get seeds (have belly).
gà	'get ripe' (die)
ɓu aà gà	The rice is ripe (it has died)

E. Rice - Preparation for Eating

If the rice is not commercially milled it is stored unthreshed. It is taken as needed and threshed in small quantities. It is then pounded in a mortar to loosen the husks. Then the rice is fanned (winnowed) in a fanner. Then it is cleaned; any small stones or unhusked grains are picked out by hand.

(ɓu) gbã	bundle of rice
ɓu tòlò	to thresh rice (done usually by walking on it).
ɓu sií/kele	rice seed (unmilled)
ɓu zɔ̃	to pound rice, to mill rice
wɛ́ĩ	mortar
wɛni	pestle

ɓu tolo	rice husks
láa	rice fanner (winnow)
ɓu félé	to clean rice
ɓu félée	clean(ed) rice

F. Plants

1. A note on *yílí*: the basic meaning of *yílí* is something like 'stem'. A tree trunk is *yílí*, but rice stalks are also called *yílí*. The cassava stock used for planting is called *béì yílí*. By extension the word can also refer to a plant with a rigid stem, especially a tree. It can also refer to wood, as in *yílí nya* 'to carve wood.'

2. Plant Parts:

ɓɛɛ...fruit
bĩĩ́...flower
deĩ...bud
gáná...root
gbãã...branch
kele...bark

lèe...edible root
béì lèe...cassava root
lɛ́ɛ́...leaf
wɛ́lɛ́...seed, pit
yílí...stem, trunk
yìlíɓɛɛ...fruit in general

3. Plant Types:

ɓɛ̀lɛ̀...vine
suú...grass, weeds
yílí...tree

4. Verbs, Adjectives

ɓo...to pick, pull out

ɓòo ɓo...pick vegetables

suú ɓo...pull weeds

bɔ...grow (intransitive)

yíli e bɔ...The plant grew.

(cf taa 'to plant, to grow (tr.)'

kpála...to ripen

kpolo...unripe

tã̀ã̀...ripe

ŋɛ́ĩ tã̀ã̀ lɛ ...The orange is ripe.

vúú...rotten

à vúú lɛ. It's rotten.

G. Swamp Rice Growing

1. Choosing a Site

yíía lɛ́ e gó mɛ́ɛzàá?	Where does the water come from?
yíí wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ e nu?	How much water can come?
zi kpɛ lɛ́ yíía bà lɛ à ká gbeĩ?	How deep can the water get?
à bà lɛ gbekení.	It is very deep.
yíí aä kɔɔ dɔ́ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀?	Does it ever get dry here?
yíía lɛ́ɛ̀ gó nɔ́ lɛ̀ doó kpã́ã́ mɔ̀?	Does the water come from only one place?
dɛĩ à tã́ã̀ lɛ́ e kéa?	Whose land is this?
mɛ́ɛpɛ̃́ o nyɛ́nɛ kɛ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀?	When did they farm here? (How long ago?)
ɓu lɛ́ e bɛ̀i à mɔ̀ e ɓɔ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀ sɛ̀?	Can rice grow well here?

2. Preparing the Site

i gbũã yí?	Do you belong to a kuu?
lɛ̀ɛ vɔlɔ kéléíkèlèì.	Brush it very clean.
lɛ̀ɛ vɔlɔ tã́ã̀ kpókpó mɔ̀.	Cut the brush very low.
yíliɛ gáná ɓo fɛ́fɛ́lé.	Take this plant out by the roots.

gwáta fòo kpéíkpéí/púlúu.	Dig the gutters straight.
bálá yà kpɔ́ǔ pèèlɛ là.	Pack a bund on both sides. (Build up the sides of the ditch.)
à kɛ gbĕí kélɛ.	Make it this high (high like this).
à tɛ̀ɛ̀ siǎ.	Slope it.
yííá pɛ̆ɛ̆ gbùò kélɛ.	Flood the field this much.
yííá ɛ tó fía là lɛkpɛ́í yààka píé.	Let the water stay in the field three days.
yíá kɔɔ.	Drain the water.
fíà là zɔ̆.	Mash the floor (compact the dirt).
à kɛ lɔ́lo (kélɛ bálá lɛ́ ɓɛ).	Make it soft (like a swamp) (for nursery bed).

3. Planting

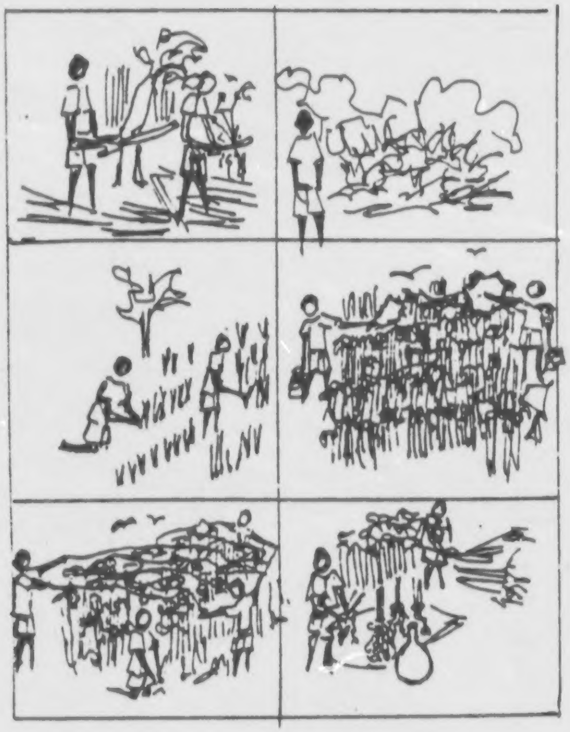
ɓu péné wòlò à gáná séí ká.	Take out the seedling with the whole root.
à taa pèèlɛ gùlù doó yí.	Plant them two in each hole.
à fíɛ yí e bei e kéè ká.	Space them evenly.
ɓúɔ taa naa yí kpéí kpéí/pulúu.	Plant the rice in a straight line.
yé ɓaà ɓúɔ taa naa yí kpéíkpéíɛ, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo kɛɛ lɔ́ɔ́lɔ kɛ ko suú wòlò ɓúɔ yí.	If you plant the rice in straight lines, it will be easier to weed.

4. Improving the Soil

ɓú gǎ yílía kắ tắằ e to fíɛ̀ là.	Leave the straw in the field.
ɓaà à to à yíɛ, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo tắằ kɛɛ̀ sɛ̀.	If you leave it, it will make the soil good.
ɓaà gúo ɔ̀ɔ́ ze taa fíe la, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo tắằ kɛɛ̀ sɛ̀.	If you plant groundnuts or beans in the field, it will make the soil good.
yé ɓúa aà nyɛ yíɛ, kɛ ko ɓòo taa yí.	When the rice is finished, you can grow vegetables.

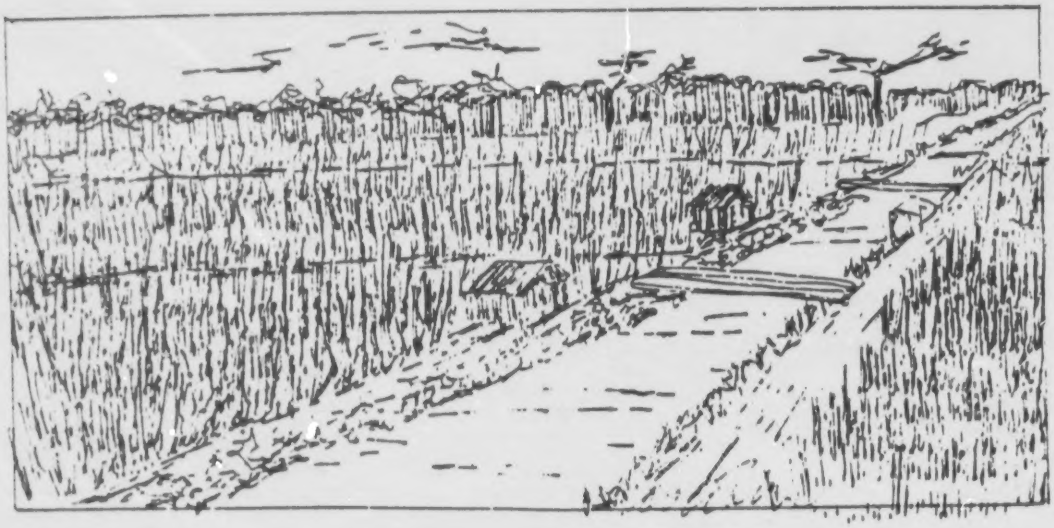
IV. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Pictures - Farming Cycle



1. Learn to identify the process going on in each picture.
2. Identify the different objects found in the pictures: tools, rice in different stages of growth, etc.
3. Using the pictures as cues, describe how rice is grown.

B. Picture - Swamp Rice



1. Identify the different parts of a rice paddy.
2. Describe in Mano what a well built paddy should be like.
3. Write a short narrative explaining how to grow swamp rice, from building the field on.
4. Write a short essay discussing the advantages and disadvantages of swamp rice compared to upland rice.
5. Correct the texts you have written with your tutor, and memorize them. Then, practice paraphrasing each one, giving the same information but using different words.

C. Cultural Awareness - Plant Terminology

1. Review the different vegetables and fruits you have learned. Find out what plants or plant parts are referred to by the words: ɓòo, ɓɛɛ, wɛ́lɛ́.

2. Go outside with your tutor and learn to identify the different kinds of plants you see, and the names of their different parts.

D. Translation - English to Mano

1. We cleared a field to grow rice in.
2. I will go to Ganta to go to school.
3. He is here to help you.
4. He worked for a little while, then he went home.
5. I saw him, but he wasn't working then.
6. I will be in America then.

E. Transformation

Translate the sentences below into Mano. Then rewrite them in the past, perfect, and future tense.

1. He is planting rice.
2. They are at the farm.
3. The rice is getting tall.
4. Our farm is big.
5. We are farmers.
6. This is my farm.

F. Directed Conversation

Question your tutor in Mano about the various foods grown in Liberia - when are they planted; how do you take care of them; when are they ready to pick; etc.

LESSON NINETEEN

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I. TEXTS

Dialogue - Where is your house?

Pèé: Walter, ɓaà ló m píé ká là dɔ́?	Walter, have you ever been to my house?
Walter: Gbàaò, ǹń ló yí nɛ́.	No, I haven't gone there yet.
P: I lo lóo kó ko lé ɓèlè lúó dɔ̃̀ ká.	Come eat with us some time.
W: m̲̀m̲̀. ń̲ǹ̲ nu mɛ́ɛpɛ̃?	Yes. When should I come?
P: I nu tòò yénàapíé.	(You should) come tomorrow evening.
W: m̲̀m̲̀, ńǹ bɛ̀i à mɔ̀ n nu gbaa. ɓ̲à̲ ká lɛ mɛ́?	Yes, I can come then. Where is your house?
P: ń̲ǹ̲ lo lóo i ká yí, koà nyɛ́.	I will carry you there when we have finished (work).
W: Lɛ m mɔ̀ n ló m píé kaĩ nɛ́.	I have to go home first.
P: O.K., wɛ̀lɛ̀ i píé ká là í lo ko píé ká là wá gbeĩ. í̲ì̲ Gínì zi sí yí.	O.K., it's not far from your house to ours. You take the Guinea road.
W: ń̲ǹ̲ lo lɔ́o yí gbeĩ?	How far should I go?
P: Lo zi wṹ là. í̲ì̲ lo ǹ ká gɛ̃̀ɛ̃̀ i kɔ̀ yíe là.	Go to the edge of town. You will see my house on the right.
W: ǹ̲ń̲ gɛ̃̀ɛ, ń lo mi dɔ̃̀ wáĩlɔ gèe.	If I can't see (it), I will ask somebody.

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Text - To the Market

ɓaà wɛ̀lɛ̀ ko píé ká là, ɓaà kɛ ló pìè lɔ́ɔ́ yíɛ, íì tà tã́ã̀ to i nu zi gbàa là. ɓa nu zi gbàa làa, íì zíɛ sí i kɔ̀ gbíe yí. ɓaà ló i kɔ̀ gbíe yíɛ, i lo ɓɔ̀ɔ̀ lɛ̀ mia o kã́ã̀ sí à mɔ̀ɔ mɔ̀. ɓaà ɓɔ yíɛ, i ló kpeí i dìɛ̀ tɔ́ɔ̀ lé mɔ̀, i ló kpeí bèi tã́ã̀ tɔ́ɔ̀ léítópìè. íì lo mia gɛ̀ɛ̀ túó wá ló lɔ́ɔ́ yí, mia wá gó pɔɔ̀ ká lɔ́ɔ́ yí, to i ló gbaa yí, i ɓà pɔɔ̂ lɔ́.

From our house, to go to the market you walk until you reach the junction. When you reach the junction you take the road to the left. When you go to the left you will reach the place where people take cars. When you have reached there you go straight, you pass in front of the stores. You go straight down to the end of the stores. You will see a lot of people going to the market, (and) people coming from the market. Then you go there, you buy your things.

Text - The Mano

A kɛ máá mia óò gó Nĩ́ba káũti. Mɛĩ lɛ́ o sɔ́nɔ́ kɔɛ̀ɛ . Nĩ́ba tɔ̃ lɛ yĩ́. tɔ̃ɔ̃ lɛ máá sɛ́lɛ́ yĩ́ wa bilĩ́gũ.

Máá pɛ́lɛ gbùò ye lɛ́e tɔ́ Saklepĩ́é, Gããpà, Séĩ́gbei wà Yeképà. Máá mia gbṹũ o Bàɔ̃ wà Tapepà. Mia gbṹũ o Gĩ́nì.

Máá mia o gbúnúuzɛ o nyɛ́ŋɛkɛmì ká. Mia gbṹũ óò yábó kɛ tɔ̃ pĩ́é. Mia gbṹũ óò lóbaa taa. Máá mia óò yĩ́lĩ́ nya sɛ̀, wáà máá ɓɔ pɛ kɛ sɛ̀.

Gɛ̀ɛ mia ye lɛ́ o gbeĩ Máá mɔ̃ɔ. Máá mia wà Gɛ̀ɛ mia o dúó mi doó ká. A záa yĩ́ɛ, lɛ gbàlà mia ká. ɓaà ló lààa, gbɔ̃́ɔ̃ mia wà kwàná mia o yĩ́.

The Mano live in Nimba county. The St. John's river runs next to them. The Nimba mountains are also there. There are mountains and high bush in the Mano country.

The main Mano towns are (called) Sacklepie, Ganta, Saniquellie and Yekepa. Some Mano live in Bahn and Tappita. Some are in Guinea.

Most Mano are farmers. Some work at the mines at Lamco. Some grow rubber.

The Mano are good at carving wood and pottery making.

The Gio live along side the Mano. The Mano and Gio are almost the same. On the other side are the Kpelle. If you go towards the coast, there are the Bassa and Krahn.

III. Vocabulary

A. Giving Directions

Phrases:

maà tó luú	I'm lost.
zi kpɛ lɛ́ n lo lóo à(ká) ___?	How can I get to ___? (What road will I take to ___?)
tó zí e yía píé	Follow this road/path.
ló kpeĩ	go straight
ló ɨ kɔ yíe	go to your right
ló ɨ kɔ gbíe	go to your left
lɛ (túó) gbeĩ	It's far.
ye wá gbeĩ	It's not far.

Verbs:

ɓɔ ___ là/mɔ̀ — to reach ___

tó zí e yía píé, ĩì lo ɓɔɔ̀ ká dɔ̃̀ là ɨ líé.

'Take this path, (and) you will reach a house in front of you.'

ɓaà ɓɔ yíɛ, ɨ ló kpeĩ.

'When you have reached there, go straight.'

dìɛ̀ ___ là — to pass ___

ɨ lo dìɛ̀ɛ̀ ká yààka là.

'You will pass three houses.'

e dìɛ̀ n là zi mɔ̀.

'He passed me in the street.'

dɔ tã́ã̀ — to stop (movement)

dɔ tã́ã̀ kɛ ɨ tiã ɓɔ zía là.

'Stop before you reach the street.'

Mi dɔ̀ lɛ dɔ pìè táà ko pié lié.

'Someone is stooping in front of our house.'

Postpositions:

sɛ́í		side
	zi sɛ́í	the side of the road
wṹ		head
	zi wũ là	the edge of town (the head of the road)
zoé		center, middle, between
	____ wà ____ o zoé	between ____ and ____.

B. Locations in Town

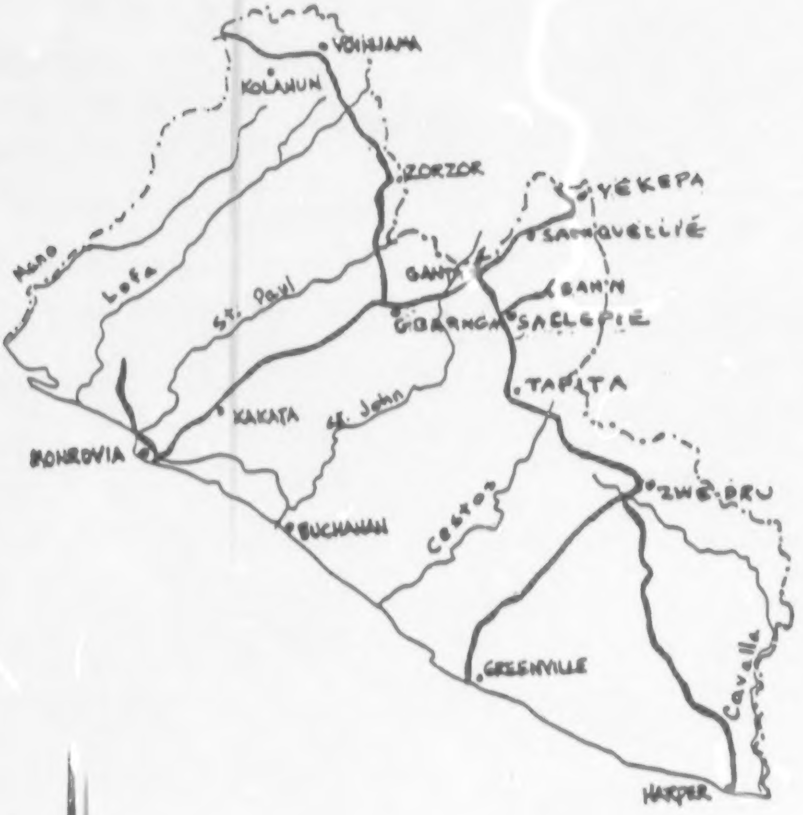
pɛ́lɛ	town
gbéí	quarter
lɔ́ɔ́ yí	market
kiiká	school building
soe (yí ká)	church (building)
nyìɛkálà	hospital/clinic
káà sí pié	parking station
gbɔɔkpàà kaì	cook shop (place where food is prepared)
gàlà yí	compound
lɛ̀	yard
zi	road
zi gbùò	main road
zi gbàa là	crossroads, junction
gà pié	foot path
kpáá	bridge

C. Geography

yíí	water: stream, lake, pond
yíí gùlù	well (water hole)
ɓálá yí	swamp (mud-water)
tɔ̃ɔ̃	hill
tɔ̃ɔ̃wīí	mountain
tɔ̃píé	the Nimba mountains
mɛi	river (esp. the St. John's river)
mɛ̀i	the ocean
bilígʊ	high forest
súố yí	cut over bush, grassland
sɛ́lɛ́	country, region
naa	border
laa	away from the coast
boé	towards the coast

III. FURTHER PRACTICE

A. Map - Towns and Roads


VOINJAMA
KOLAHUN
ZORZOR
YEKEPA
SANNQUELLIE
Mano
Lofa
St. Paul
GANTA
GBARNGA
SAH'N
SACLEPIE
TAPITA
KAKATA
St. John
MONROVIA
BUCHANAN
Cestos
ZWE DRU
GREENVILLE
Cavalla
HARPER

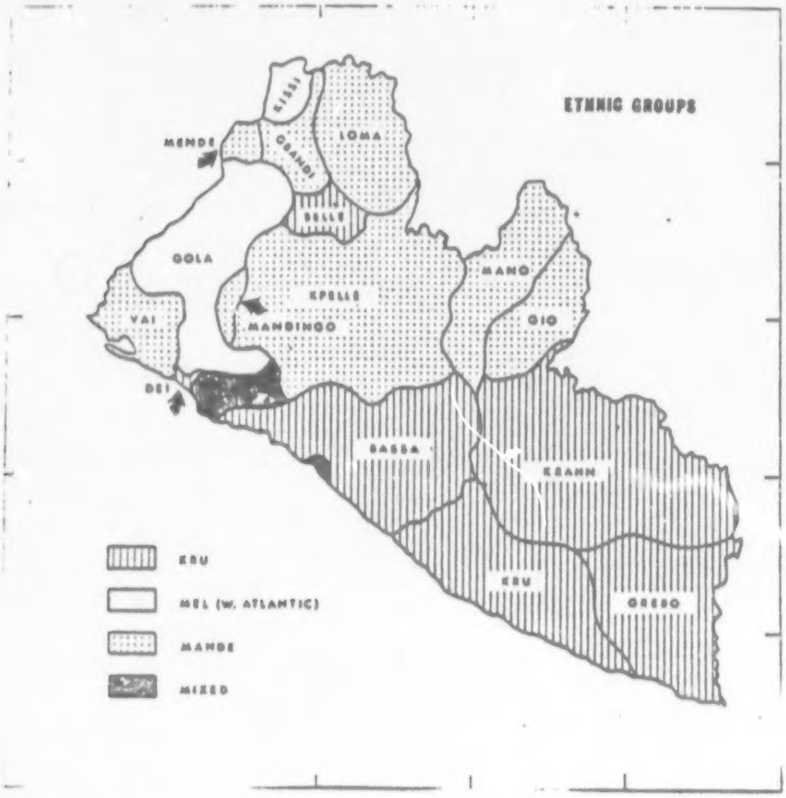
1. Pick one town. Then tell your tutor how to get from there to other Liberian towns. What road do you take? What towns do you pass through? Do you have to change cars?
2. Have your tutor ask questions like these:

   What town is between ___ and ___?
   If you go towards the coast from ___, what town will you reach?

Is it far from ____ to ____?

Is ____ a big town? When does it have a market?

B. Map - Ethnic Groups


ETHNIC GROUPS
KISSI
MENDE
GBANDI
LOMA
BELLE
GOLA
KPELLE
MANDINGO
VAI
DEI
MANO
GIO
BASSA
KRAHN
KRU
GREBO
KRU
MEL (W. ATLANTIC)
MANDE
MIXED

1. Use the map to review the names of ethnic groups you have learned, and to learn those you don't know yet.
2. Questions

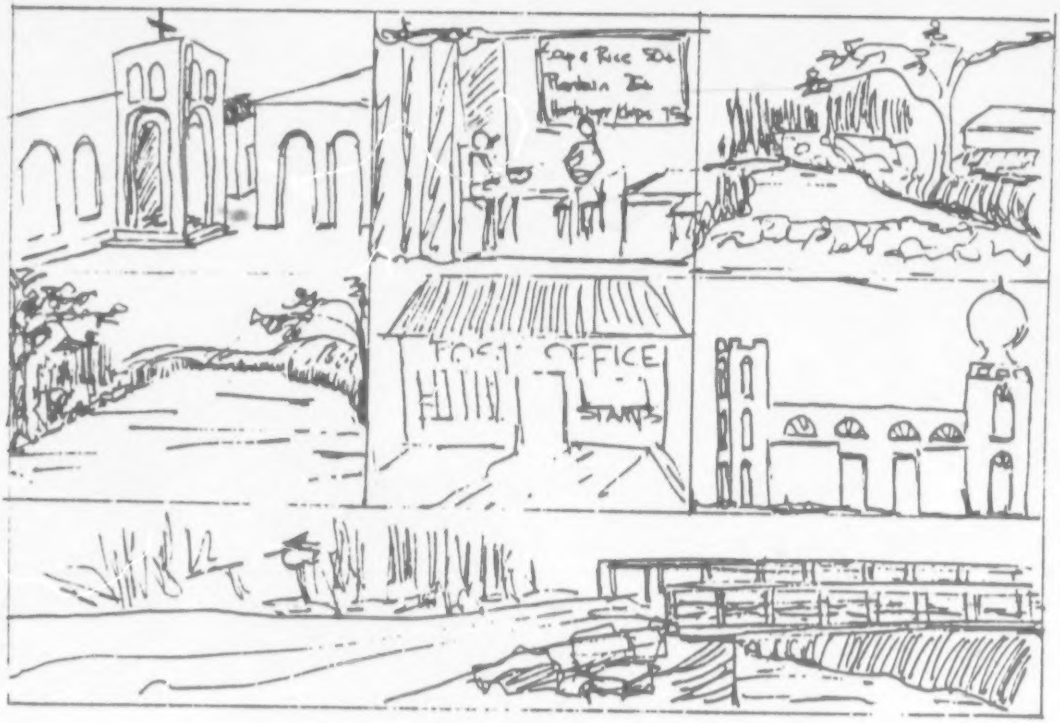
Where do the ___ live?

What language do they speak in ___?

Do the ___ people live next to the ___?

Is the ___ language like the ___ language?

C. Pictures - Around Town


Soup & Rice 50¢
Plantain 25¢
Hamburger/Chips 75¢
POST OFFICE
STAMPS

Identify what is in the pictures.

D. Composition

1. Describe the town you live in. Where is it, what is in it, what do the people who live there do?
2. Tell how to get from where you live to some other place in town: where you work, a friend's house, etc.
3. Tell about a trip you made. Where did you go? How did you go there? What happened on the way? What did you see on the way?

........................LESSON TWENTY........................

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. TEXTS

II. VOCABULARY - Doctor, Hospital; Hurt, Break, Wound; Diseases; Internal Organs; Body Wastes and Secretions; To breathe, to sneeze; Medicine, Dosages

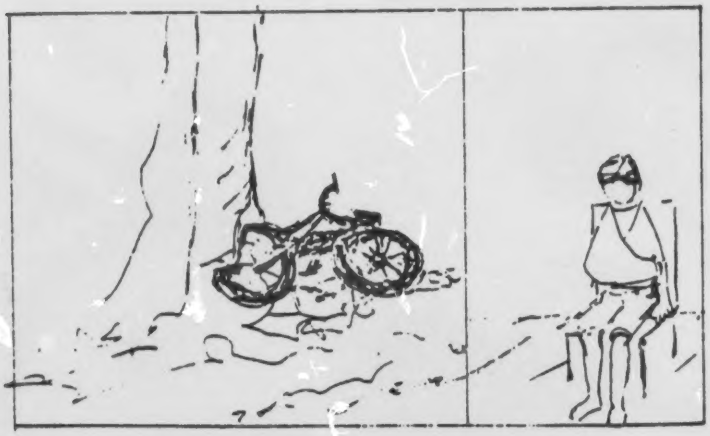
III. MEDICAL HISTORIES - General Information; Symptoms; Pregnancy; Children; Tuberculosis

I. TEXTS

Text - Nyaa's Accident

Nyàá ɛ kɛ sákò taa pìɛ̀. Sákò ɛ kaa, ɓii ɛ kɛ ɓàlà sí pìè à ká. ɛ gíī ɛ wű mɔ̀, lɛ́ e ɛ kɔ̀ yɛ́. lɛ nyìɛ̀kálà dɛ̀ɛ̀ka mɔ̀. Dátèrè lɛ́ɛ̀ lo à kɔ̀ yà, kɛ ɓà à wű mɔ̀a sɔ́lɔ́. lɛ́ɛ̀ lo béèa mɔ̀ ɛ́ lúó ɓéí kɛ yí.

Nya was riding a motorcycle. The motorcycle crashed, because he was driving it too fast. He cut his head and broke his arm. He is in the hospital now. The doctor will set his arm and sew up the cut in his head. Then he will stay in bed for a little while.



Text - Pregnancy

Yé ɓaà kɛ gízɛ̀ɛ, íì ló nyìɛ̀kálà. Nyìɛ̀kálà lúó kpókpó lɛ ɓɛ lóa gízɛ̀ wɛ́ì lɔ́ɔ́ séíséí ká. à wɔ̃ yí dɔ íì bɛ̀i à mɔ̀ í i léɓèlè yíèyíè ɓèlè. Pɛ lɛ́ɛ kélɛ kpàá wà wìì wà ɓòolɛ́ɛ́ni wà yílíɓɛɛni lɛ́ ɓa ɓèlèɛ. Lɛ́ɛ̀ lɔ i kɛ kéléíkèlèì. Lɛ́ɛ̀ i gba léà ká. Lɛ́ɛ̀ lo i gba nɛ́fú gbùɔ̀ ká. I fíí dɔ lúó séíì ká yé kɛ i gí ɛ lo gàà. ɓáá pɔɔ̀ gbínì sí lɛí.

If you are pregnant, you (should) go to the clinic. There is a clinic day for pregnant women every week. Remember to eat good food. Things like fish and meat and greens and fruit you should eat. It will make you healthy. It will help your blood. It will give you a strong baby. Rest every day so you don't get tired. Don't carry heavy loads.

Text - Disease Prevention

Pɛ búnúυzɛ̀ lɛ́ɛ̀ i kɛ yáa ká. íì yáa bṹũ sí yíí yɔ́ɔ̀ mɔ̀. A yé ɓà yíígùlù aà kɛ gboká sɔ́nɔ́ koɛ̀ɛ, a yé ɓàá fɔ̃́ gbeĩɛ, í lo yáa síi à bà. I ɓà yíí kpàà, kɛ i tiã́ à mi.

íì yáa sí a yé ìí léɓèlè yíè ɓèlèɛ. Nɔ́ɔ̀ɓɛ kpókpó óò yáa sí a yé òó léɓèlè yíè ɓèlèɛ.

Ayé ɓaà gbɛ̃ yíí bàa, íì wɛ́nɛ́ doódo sí. óò lo i kɛ yáa ká. ɓaà kɛ lo pìè gbɛ̃ɛ̃ yíí ɓàa, íì búù wàà.

Wɛ̃́ɛ̃ aà yà ɓà léɓèlè mɔ̀ɔ, lɛ́ɛ̀ yáa to à mɔ̀. A yé zéèza aà i miɛ, íì yáa kɛ. Lɛ sɛ̀ kɛ íì zéèza sɔ dũ i píé kaì ɔ̀ɔ́ i zéèzanyìɛ̀ gèlè i píé kaì.

Many things can make you sick. You can get sick from bad water. If your well is near a latrine (or) if you didn't dig it deep, you will get sick from it. You should boil your water before you drink it.

You can get sick if you don't eat good food. Children especially get sick if they don't eat good food.

If you go in the water you can get different kinds of worms. They will make you sick. When you are going into the water you (should) wear boots.

When flies land on your food they leave diseases on it. When mosquitoes bite you you get sick. It is good to use a mosquito net in your house or burn a mosquito coil.

II. VOCABULARY

A. Doctor, Hospital, etc.

dátɛ...doctor, P.A., nurse
háspita...hospital

nyìɛ̀kɛmì...traditional doctor (medicine man)
nyìɛ̀kálà...clinic, hospital

B. Hurt, Cut, Wound

1. To hurt

It is necessary to distinguish between two verbs, 'to hurt': wàà which has an inanimate object as subject, i.e., part of one's body, and a person as object:

Example:

n gà lɛ n wàà	My leg hurts (me).

gĩ́ĩ with an animate subject:

Examples:

maà n gã̀ gĩ́ĩ.	I (have) hurt my leg.
maà à gĩ́ĩ.	I hurt him.
ɛ gĩ́ĩ ɛ wṹ mɔ̀.	He hurt his head.

2. To cut

To say something like 'I cut my finger' one uses the verb gĩ́ĩ 'to hurt'. The verb kã́ which may be given as the translation conveys the idea of cutting into pieces or cutting in two. Used in this context it would mean 'I cut off my finger.'

Examples:

maà n kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́ gĩ́ĩ.	I've hurt/cut my finger.
maà n kɔ̀wɛ́nɛ́ kã́.	I've cut off my finger.

3. Other

yɛ́...to break
n kɔ̀ aà yɛ́...My arm has broken.
n kɔ̀ yɛ́ɛ lɛ...My arm is broken.

ɓà...sore, cut, scratch, wound
gbú...big bumps on the skin

C. Diseases

busɛ́ɛ̃́...measles

busɛ́ɛ̃́ lɛ i kɛ...you have measles

kɛlɛ́kɛlɛ...dysentery

ḿɛ kpɔnɔ...malaria, fever

tɔ̀ɔ̀ nyàà wei...gonorrhea (chicken egg urine)

wɛ̀ɛ...a cold (L.E., fresh cold)

wɛ̀ɛ lɛ n kɛ...I've got a cold

yí kpɔla...diarrhea

yí kpɔla lɛ n kɛ ...I have diarrhea.

yízóló...jaundice

D. Internal Organs

ɓulu...liver

fàà...lungs

gé...stomach (inside)

gé kpăă wɛ́lɛ́...kidneys

géɓɛ̀lɛ̀...intestines

gí...belly (external)

kii...skin

léá...blood

mĩlɛ̃...veins, arteries; nerves

tɛ̀gbɛ̀...brains

zo...heart

E. Body Fluids (Urine, Sweat, etc.)

gbo...feces

luɛ...pus

wɛi, weí...urine

nyɑ̃́yí...mucus

léyí...spit

nyɛyí...tears

zɔ̃, zɑ̃...sweat

F. Breathe, Sneeze, etc.

tɛ́lɛ́...to breathe

tɛ́lɛ́ gáà...breathe hard

sólí, sóní...to vomit

tiséè ɓo...to sneeze

tiséè...a sneeze

dɔ̃́ {zɛ}...to cough
    {ɓo}

dɔ̃́zɛ léá ká...to cough blood

dɔ̃́, dɔ̃́ɑ̃́...cough

léyí duo...to spit

{zɔ̃} ɓo ___ mɔ̀...____is sweating
{zɑ}

zɔ̃ lɛ ɓo pìè à mɔ̀...He is sweating.

n nyìɛ̀ wɛlɛ mani..I swallowed (a/some) pill(s).

mani...to swallow

G. Medicine & Dosages:

nyìɛ...medicine

ɛ n nyìɛ̀ kɛ...He gave me medicine; he cured me.

nyìɛnyɔ́nɔ́....salve (medicine oil)

nyìɛwɛ́lɛ́....pill (medicine seed)

nyìɛ mi...to take (drink) medicine

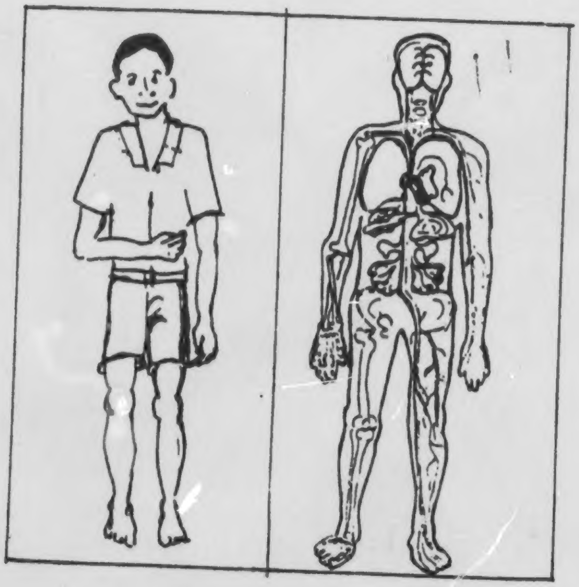
nyìɛ̀wɛ́lɛ́ mani....to take a pill. (swallow)

mɛ̀ɛ̀léī duo ___ mɔ̀...to give ___ a shot (mɛ̀ɛ̀léī means needle)

nyìɛ̀nyɔ́nɔ́ bóno ___ mɔ̀...to rub salve on ___.
lā

i nyìɛ̀wɛ́lɛ́ doó sí lúó séí ká. peetɛ bímíɛ séī ká. làapíé . . .	Take one pill(s) every day. two every night. in the morning. . . .
à doó sí yé { ɓaà wɛ̀lɛ̀. mɛ kpono á i kɛ. . .	Take one when { you get up. you feel fever. . .
nyìɛ wɛ́lɛ́ bīī ɓo, lɛ̀ à dà yíí ɓɛ́ī ɓà.	Make the tablet into a powder, then put it in a little water.
lɛ́ɛ̀ kpeī íì nyìɛ̀wɛ́lɛ́ sí lúó séí ká.	It is important to take your pill every day.
nyìɛ sí e tóa kíli ɛ́ nyɛ.	Take the medicine until it is finished.
nu tòò (zeī)	come back tomorrow
nu yé lɔ́ɔ́ pèètɛ aà dìɛ. mɛnɛ doo . .	Come back in two weeks. (When ___ has passed.) one month. . .
ìí nàà mɛ̀ɛ̀léí ká.	You don't need an injection.
kòó mɛ̀ɛ̀léī duo yáaɛ wɛ́ī.	We don't give injections for this sickness.
ɑbòù wá í kɛ̀lɛ̀ɛ, kòó nyìɛ̀ nu i lɛ̀ɛ.	If you don't have a bottle, we can't give you any medicine.

i máányìɛ̀ kɛ?	Did you use any country medicine?
máányìɛ̀ kpɛ lɛ́ ba kɛ?	What kind of country medicine did you use?
i nyìɛ̀ lɔ́ (nyìɛ̀) tɔ́ɔ̀ yí?	Did you buy the medicine at a pharmacy?
nyìɛ̀ kpɛ lɛ́ ba lɔ́?	What medicine did you buy?



III. MEDICAL HISTORY

1. General Information

mɛ́ɛ mi lɛ́ i ká?	What is your ethnic group?
i klíístɛ̃ ká?	Are you Christian?
íì sálí ɓo?	Are you Muslim?
ɓaà ló dɔ́ nyìɛ̀kálà?	Have you ever been in the hospital before?
mɛ́ ɓa mɔ̀ɔ ló ɓo {nyìɛ̀ ká là? yi	Why did you go {to the hospital? there?
i ló nyìɛ̀kálà {mɛ́ɛ pɛ̃́? mɛɛ zaá?	When Where} have you been in the hospital?
ɓaà fùkɛlɛ dɔ́?	Have you ever fainted?
ɓaà i wɛ́lɛ́ yɛ́ ɗɔ́?	Have you ever broken your bones?
íì lɛ̀ gɛ̃̀ kpeí?	Do you see well?
ɓaà nyiɛ́ dátà gɛ̃̀?	Have you seen an eye doctor?
mi dɔ̃̀ lɛ́ɛ̀ dɔ̃́ ɓo léa ká ká ɓà?	Does anyone in the family have TB (cough blood)?
íì yɔ mi gbùò̀?	Do you drink (liquor) a lot?
íì tãà mi?	Do you smoke?
íì i sɔ̃ ɓo tèèlɛ?	Do you brush your teeth often?
íì yííá sí mɛ́?	Where do you get your water?
íì yííá kpàà?	Do you boil your water?
gboká lɛ́ í kɛ̀lɛ̀?	Do you have a latrine?
níàníà sɔ lɛ́ i kɛ̀lɛ̀? zéèza	Do you have mosquito netting?

2. Symptoms

mɛ́ e i kɛ?	What's wrong with you?
mɛ́ (e) à kɛ?	What's wrong with him?
n kéléí kèlèì.	I'm healthy; I feel good.

n wá kéléĩ́ kèlèĩ̀.	I don't feel good.
maà kɛ kéléĩ́ kèlèĩ̀.	I've gotten better.
n qbaa kéléĩ́ kèlèĩ̀.	I feel better, I feel good now.
n gé lᵋ kpɛ̃̀nɛ̃̀.	I have a stomach ache.
n wṹkɛlɛ lɛ pei.	I have a headache.
mɛ́kpɔnɔ lɛ́ n kɛ gágà.	Malaria is giving me a hard time.
n nyiɛ́ là lɛ́ɛ nìɛ.	My eyes can turn.(I feel dizzy sometimes.)
lɛ́a lɛ́ e go m mɔ̀.	I'm bleeding; I can bleed a little.
{yáa} lɛ́ ikɛ? {yɔa}	Are you sick?
i ____ lɛ́ i wàà?	Does your ____ hurt?
i lɛ̀ ekéa lɛ i {nyɔ̰́ɔ̀? {wàà}	Does this place hurt you?
i kpóló lɛ kpɛ?	How is your body?
ĩ́ kpóló lɛ dɔ̃́ɔ̃́lɔ?	Do you feel cold?
i kpóló lɛ tíee?	Do you feel hot?
n kpóló séĩ lɛ n wàà.	My whole body is hurting me.
i zo lɛ́ e seɛ lɛ̀ i gĩ̀ĩ ká?	Were you unconscious after you were hurt?
mɛ́ ɓa mani?	What did you swallow?
i à mani mɛ́ɛpɛ̃́?	When did you swallow it?
i a sólí lɛ́ à mánía ká?	Did you vomit after swallowinq it?
lɛ i wàà, ɓa i wuu sí gáàa?	Does it hurt when you take a deep breath?
ɓaà dɔ̃́ ɓoa, lɛ́ i wàà?	Does it hurt when you cough?
fĩ̀ {tɛ̰́lɛ́} gbeĩ? {wuú ka}	Are you short of breath?
lúó wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ i yí fɔ̃ nɔ́ɔ lɛ̀ɛ́ gbaa a kɛ a ká?	How long have you been feeling bad?
mɛ́ɛ kpɔnɔ {e gbɛĩ̀ i mɔ̀} mɛ́ɛ pɛ̃́? {e i kɛ}	When did the fever start?

aà kɛ {lúǫ́ pèètɛ luǫ́ geĩ kɛ̀ɛ ɓúnúzɛ} ká.	It started {2 days along time many years} ago.
⋮	⋮
léa lɛ́ i gbo bà?	Do you have bloody stools?
wɛ́nɛ́ lɛ́ i gbo bà?	Do you have worms in your stools?
i gbo lɛ ɓáa?	Are your stools slippery?
i weí lɛ kpɛ?	How is your urine?
m weí lɛ zolo.	My urine is red.

3. Pregnancy

lee gízɛ̀...pregnant woman

zoó le...midwife

zoó lóa (pl.)...zoe women

___ yé...to bear ___

aà nɛ́ yé.	She has had a baby.
o n yé Gbãká.	I was born (they bore me) in Gbarnga.
à gí lɛ à mɔ̀.	She is pregnant.
à gí lɛ a kɛ pìè.	She is in labor.
aà kɔ̃̀ɔ̃ lèe ɓo.	She has given birth.
m̀ mɛnɛ lɛ m mɔ̀.	I'm having my period.
mɛ́ɛ pɛ́ lɛ́ i ɓà mɛnɛ gɛ̀?	When did you see your (last) period?
ɓaà yòo yè dɔ́?	Have you ever had twins?
i yòo ká?	Are you a twin?
yòo lɛ́ ká bà?	Are there twins in the family?
ɓaà gí sí wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How often have you been pregnant?

ɓaà gí sí wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ aà gó i mɔ̀?	How many belly wastes (miscarriages) have you had?
nɔ́ɔ̀bɛ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ aà gàa i kɛ̀lɛ̀?	How many of your children have died?
mɛ́ nɔ́ɔ̀ɓɛ à yía wa mɔ̀ɔ gà ɓo?	Why did the other children die?
mɛ́ɛ pɛ̃́ lɛ́ i lo kɔ̃̀ɔ̃ lèe ɓo?	When do you expect (when will you have) your baby?

4. Children

i nɛ́fúa à yéle ká?	Are you the child's born mother?
mɛ́ɛ yábó lɛ́ nɛ́fúa à dàa a kɛ?	What work does the child's father do?
a lèe lɛ́ɛ̀ yábó kɛ?	Does the mother work?
ɓi lɛ́ nɔ́ ɓa à nà ká?	Are you the only wife?
ɓí lɛ́ i à lee ɓɛ́ízɛ ká?	Are you the first wife?
nɛ́fúa aà yī nyɛ́nɛpɛ̃́ Wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How many dry seasons has the baby been alive?
i nɛ́fúa yè mɛ́?	Where was the baby born?
zóóle e kɛ yí?	Did you have a midwife?
ɓaà wùlù ɓɛ̀lɛ̀ kã́ mɛ́ɛká?	What did you cut the cord with?
nɛ́fúa aà mɛ̀ɛ̀léí sí?	Has the child has a vaccination? injection?
busɛ̃́ɛ̃́ aà(à) kɛ dɔ́?	Has he ever had measles?
lɛ́ɛ̀ lo gboká yí ɛ dīɛ̀ ká?	Is he/she toilet rained? (Can he go to the latrine by himself?)
nɛ́fúa e kɛ kɛɛ̀ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ kɛ e tiã́ taa?	How old was the baby before it walked?
aà taa dɔ́?	Did it ever walk?
nɛ́fúa lɛ́ɛ̀ gbóó ɓo nyɔ́ɔ̀?	Does the baby cry a lot?
lúó kpɛ lɛ́ nɛ́fúa e gbo à ká?	When did the baby last pass a stool?
nɛ́fúa kɔlɔ̀ɔ lɛ.	The baby is (looks) dry.
nɛ́fúa lɛ́ɛ̀ nyɔ́ mi?	Does the baby suck on the breast?

íì dìì nyɔ́yí nu nɛ́fúa lɛ̀ɛ?	Do you give the child cow's milk?
i nɛ́fúa gba léɓèlè ká?	Do you feed the baby?
mɛ́ɛ léɓèlè lɛ́ ɓa gba à ká?	What food do you give it?
i léɓèlè nu nɛ́fúa lɛ̀ɛ kɛ́ɛyí wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How many times do you feed the baby?
íì lo léa nuu i nɛ́fúa lɛ̀ɛ?	Will you give blood to your baby?
óò yíí dà nɛ́fúa yía lɛ̀ɛ́ lo kɔlɔ̀ɔ.	They are putting water in the baby to keep it from getting dry.
ye wá léɓèlè ká.	It is not food.
mi pee aà nyɛɛ, nɛ́fúa lɛ̀ɛ́ léɓèlè é túá dátà a gèe ɛ́ léɓèlè.	After surgery the child can't eat until the doctor says he can.
lɛ́ɛ̀ léɓèlèa, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo yáa kɛ.	If he eats, he will be sick.

5. Tuberculosis Questions

dɔ̃̀ lɛ́ ì mɔ̀?	Do you have a cough?
dɔ̃̀a yí i mɔ̀ wɛ̀ɛɛ̀?	How long have you had a cough?
íì dɔ̃̀ ɓo léa ká?	Do you cough blood?
zũ̀ lɛ́ e ɓo i mɔ̀ bĩ́ɛ?	Do you have night sweats?
íì wṹ dɔ sɔkpo là?	Do you sleep with a pillow?
sɔkpo wɛ̀ɛɛ̀ lɛ́ íì wṹ dɔ à là?	How many pillows do you use?

........................LESSON TWENTY-ONE........................

You have now completed all the regular lessons in this text. You should know the basics of Mano by now, but there's a lot more to learn. After you test yourself with the materials in this section, you should continue on your own, using the methods you have learned. A very good way to increase your mastery of any language is to study long texts. A folk tale has been included in this lesson, to help you get started. Another good source of written Mano is the Mano Bible, available in the CLC bookstore on Broad Street in Monrovia. However, you should get a lot of enjoyment out of collecting your own stories. You will learn a lot about the Mano people, as well as their language.

I. OBJECTIVES

	Lesson
A. Grammatical	
1. Imbedded sentences	
a. To want to ___	13
b. Start/finish ___ing	16
c. Emphatic sentences	13
d. Relative clauses	15
2. Compound sentences	
a. 'Consecutive' clauses	16
b. 'Purpose' clauses	18
c. If/When	16
d. While/when	17
e. Before, after	17
f. Then	18
3. Modals (can, may, etc.)	13
4. Comparatives and superlatives	14
5. Similes	18
6. Conjoined subjects	13
7. Use of kɛ in non-verbal sentences	18
B. Communicative	
1. Hungry, thirsty, tired	13
2. Food and drink, taste	13
3. Physical description	14
4. Mental and Emotional states	14
5. Ordinal numbers	14
6. Time expressions	15, 16
7. Weather and sky	15
8. Daily activities	16
9. Clothes (wear, put on, etc.)	16
10. The house and household tasks	17
11. Farming	18
12. Plants	18
13. Giving directions and geography	19
14. Medical vocabulary	20

II. SELF-TEST

A. Translate into Mano:

1. I'm not able to come then.
2. I have to finish working before I come.
3. When I finish I will tell you.
4. It's him who did it.
5. I know the man who did it.
6. I went to the market and bought some things.
7. I came here to go to school.
8. My father is older than yours.

B. Write a sentence, or pair of sentences, using each word below:

1. lɛ̀
2. gbaa
3. a yé ...-a,
4. to
5. lɛlɛ́
6. lúó gbṹũ ká
7. bɛ́îzɛ

C. Translate into English:

1. n ɛ sɔ̀ɔ̀ bɔ a mɔ̀.
2. máá mia wà gɛ̀ɛ mia a doó.
3. léɓèlè aà lúó gɛ̀.
4. n kɛ lɛ̀ɛ mɔ̀ áwà pèètɛ mɔ̀.
5. ko yé ko ló Dukɔ́ɔ̀.

D. Dictation

Choose a text from Lessons 13-20. Transcribe it as accurately as possible while your tutor reads it aloud. He may need to read each sentence two or three times. Correct it and make special note of the sounds you have trouble with. Review these sounds.

E. Composition

Write short texts on several of the subjects suggested below without looking in your book or notes. Correct them with your tutor.

1. Description of a friend.
2. How to grow rice (or How to grow swamp rice).
3. Your typical day.
4. A trip you took in Liberia.
5. The weather.
6. A recent illness.
7. Any other topic relating to Lessons 13-20.

III. Folk Tale: The Story of a Hunter

Part I:

Wɔ̃́ dcɔ́ lɛ́ à gbɛ̃̀ɛ̃̀ lɛ bu dà mì mɔ̀ɔ gɛ̃̀ n nu à gèe ka lɛ̀ɛ ɓɛ·

E kɛ gɔ̃ doó káa, à bɛ̃̀ɛ̃ e kɛ bu dàmì ká. Gɔ̃́e kília e kɛ bu dà pìè nyɔ́ɔ̀ɔ, áà wìì zɛ̀. Lɛ́ míá o pɛlɛ́i yia òó gbaa kɛ àtɔ́ yiè gèe pìè. Yé e kɛ kília, yelɛ́ gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e wɛ̀lɛ̀ áàgèè ḿm̀ wììzɛ pɛ́lɛ́i zèe mìà lɛ̀ɛ nyɔ́ɔ̀ɔ òó n tɔ́ yiè gèe. Lɛ́ e wɛ̀lɛ̀ áà là sɛ́lɛ́ dòyi. Ló a ɓoa, lɛ́ e dɔmì doó gɛ̃̀. Lɛ̀ e dɔmì e kília gɛ̃̀ɛ̃, a gèe lúú zɔ̃̀ɔ̃̀ n lɛ̀ɛ kɛ ḿ bà wìì zɛ. Kɛ́ a ɓo kílía, gɔ̃́ɔ̃ áà wìì zɛ̀ nɔ́ lúó séĩ séĩ ká. Lɛ́ a gèe ńǹ lɔ̀kɛ̀ ḿ gɛ́e kília yí dã́ pɛ̃́nɛɛ.

Lɛ̀ e kɛɛ yelɛ́ gɔ̃́ɔ̃ wà mi doó oló lúúa. Yé wà gɔ̃́ɔ̃ o ló lúúa, lɛ́ gɔ̃́ɔ̃ a gèe nɛ́fúa lɛ̀ɛ, kɛɛ ɓò lo pɛ́lɛ́í ɓá gèe dɔmì lɛ̀ɛ é midò vɔ kàyé ká nu n sí ma wá kélɛ́ĩ kèlɛ̀ĩ, n gã a à yɛ́. Yé nɛfúa e nua, lɛ́ a gèe dɔmìa lɛ̀ɛ, lɛ́ dɔmìa agèe à lɛ̀ɛ ɓò lo! Mi gbɛɛ wá n kɛ̀lɛ̀. Lɛ́ a gèe nɛ́fúa lɛ̀ɛ mi gbɛɛ wá n kɛ̀lɛ̀ kɛ kà yé ká ló kɛ ká nu gɔ̃́ɛ̃ ká pɛlɛi. Yé e kɛ kília gɔ̃́ɛ̃ e dɔ gáa e nu ló nɛ́fúa a ɓo a gèe à lɛ̀ɛ ká. Yé nɛ́fúa a gèe nɔ́ kília, gɔ̃́ɔ̃e kília, áà wɛ̀lɛ̀ áà gèè, kò wììa kã́ kó ló à ká pɛ́lɛ́í. Dɔmì e yía, m̀ wìì n zɛ à lɛ̀ɛ, lɛ́ɛ̀ lo à sɔ̃̀ɔ̃́ nɔɔ̀ ɓii làá lɔ̀ kɛ n ká. Ye gɛ̃̀ m páá mɔ̀ máà gèè n gà áà yɛ́ mia vɔ kɛ ó nu nsí a gèe mi wá à kɛ̀lɛ̀. Yé o nu pɛ́lɛ́í yia, a gèe dɔmì, ɓi lɛ́ n gó nɛ́fú vɔɔ̀ zèe, kɛ í mi dɔ à kɛ̀lɛ̀ kɛ é nu m sí ɓa à gèe mi wá i kɛ̀lɛ̀ɛ? Dɔmì a gèe ɓii mi gbɛɛ lɛ̀ɛ́ kɛ zèe. Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ a gèe nu m̀ wìì a sɔ̃̀ɔ̃ ká. À píé kɛ́ì mìà o kɛ yía, wáà gèè ba kpé lɛ sɛ̀ gó à lɛ̀ɛ é tó kíli. Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e wɛ̀lɛ̀ gbaa pɛ́lɛ́í e ló sɛ́lɛ́ gbɛɛ yi.

This is a story which is about a hunter. I am going to tell you.

There was a man, as for him, he was a hunter. This man was hunting a lot and killing animals. The people in the town there they weren't giving him a good name. (They didn't appreciate him.) When it was like this, the man went he said I kill animals for the people in town here a lot, but they don't appreciate it. Then he left and went to another place. When he arrived, then he saw a chief. When he saw this chief, he said 'show me the bush, I can hunt for you kill your animals.' When this was done the man hunted every day. Then he said I want to test this man today.

Then it happened that this man went to the bush with one person. When he and the man went to the bush, then the man said to the boy, (that) reach and go to town and tell (the) chief to send some one you and him come carry me. I'm not well, my leg is broken. When the boy came, then he told it to the chief, then the chief told him, go! I don't have anybody. Then he told the boy 'I don't have anybody that can go with you to bring the man to town.' When this happened the man tried hard and come when the boy went told him. When the boy told him this, this man he left and said, 'let's cut the meat and take it to town!' That chief, I hunt for him, he will pay for it because he doesn't like me. You see I tried him I said: my leg is broken, send people to come carry me, he said he didn't have anyone. When they came to the town, he told (the) chief, Is it you who I sent a boy here then you give someone to the boy that he come carry me you said you didn't have anyone? (The) chief said because nobody was here. The man said pay the price for my meat. The people in his house who were there (they) said please leave it like this. The man left then from town to go to another place.

Part II:

ɛ ló dɔmì dò píé. Dɔmì e kílía à sɔ̀ɔ̃ e kɛ̀ sɛ̀. Yé gɔ́ɔ̃ e ló à píé a, lɛ lɛ̀ɛ́ gbaa wɔ̃́ wà dɔmì ziia wà kɛɛ lɛ̀ɛ́ gbaa a gèe dɔmì dɛɛ lɛ̀ɛ. ɛ tó kíli e a gèe n nu i píe kɛ ḿ ɓ̂à wìì kɛ. Gɔ́ɔ̃ a gèe kɛɛ n̂n lɔ̀kɛ̀ í lúú zɔ̃̀ɔ̃ m lɛ̀ɛ. Dɔmìa a gèe wɔ̃́ yiè lɛ. Kɛɛ n̂n lo lúú zɔ̃̀ɔ̃ i lɛ̀ɛ. Gɔ́ɔ̃ lɛ yí áà wìì zɛ̀. Ye lɛ́ lúó doó e kɛɛ, lɛ́ e gɔ́lɔ́ gbùò zɛ̀. A gèe nɛfúa wà ye o ló lúú a lɛ̀ɛ, bòlo ɓá à gèe dɔmì lɛ̀ɛ ŋ gã̀ aà yɛ. Nɛ́fúa e nu pɛ́lɛ́ì, e lo nɔ́ dɔmì gɛ̃̀ɛ̃ e píé ká ŋɔ́ɔ. A gèe à lɛ̀ɛ mí ko ye ko ló kɛ̀ɛ lúúa, láà gèe à gã̀ aà yɛ. Dɔmìa e wɛ̀lɛ̀ ã́à mia súo kɛ̀. Kɛ ó ló o nu gɔ̃́ɔ̃ ka. Ye lɛ́ a gèe o lɛ̀ɛ, m bu dà mì ló a ɓo kɛ̀ɛ lúúa, nɛ́fúa e gó yi a gèe à gã̀ aà yɛ. N nàa nì kà lo ká à sí ká nuã́ ka n lɛ̀ɛ, míáa o ló yia o lo gɔ̃́ɔ̃ aà wɛ̀lɛ̀ aà dɔ. Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ a gèe nɛ̀ lɛ́ ma kɛɛ. A gèe gɔ́lɔ́ lɛ́ ma zɛɛ. Kà nu ka wìla kã́. O à kã́ o nu à ká pɛ́lɛ́í. A gèe dɔmìa ìɛɛ ɓáà lɔ̀kɛ̀ n ká. Ḿm lo gbaa tóò í píé n ga. E wɔ̃́ o à kɛɛ wà dɔmì zii káa a gèe gbaa à lɛ̀ɛ. Gɔ̃́ɔ̃ e tó gbaa yí e ga. À líé nyɛɛmɔ̀ lɛ.

He went to a chief's place. This chief's ways were good. When the man went to him, then he didn't the thing that he and the other chief they did he didn't tell the new chief. He only said I came to your place to hunt for you. The man said that I want you to show me the bush. The chief said that's good. But I will show you the bush. The man was there he hunted, one time, then he killed a big bushcow. He said to the boy who came with him to the bush, go tell the chief my leg is broken. The boy came to town, he went and, just saw the chief in front of his house. He told him the person I went to the bush with before he says his leg is

broken. The chief got up and called his men. That they go bring the man. He told them, my hunter who went to the bush, the boy came from there he said his leg is broken. My people you go carry him and bring him to me, the people who went there they went the man had gotten up and stood. The man said I told a lie. He said I killed a bushcow. Come cut your meat. They cut it and brought it to town. He told the chief you like me. I am going to stay at your place now until I die. He told the trouble he had with the chief to him then. The man stayed there then until he died. This is the end (of my story).

APPENDIX

INTRODUCTION TO THE LANGUAGES OF LIBERIA

BY

DAVID J. DWYER

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE LANGUAGES OF LIBERIA

In addition to English, which is widely spoken in Liberia, there are three major groups of languages spoken there: West Atlantic, Kru and Mande, all of which are subdivisions of the Niger-Congo branch of Niger-Kordafanian, the largest grouping of languages in Africa (see figure 1).

The Kru languages, spoken in both southern Liberia and the western part of the Ivory Coast, include the following Liberian languages: Krahn, Bassa, Kru, Grebo, Dei and Kuwaa (also known as Belleh). The West Atlantic languages are spoken from Liberia north to Senegal and include the Gola and Kissi, spoken in the northwestern and northern parts of Liberia respectively. These languages are virtually surrounded by languages of the third group known as the Mande languages. This group covers a much larger area than the other two, including not only the above-mentioned countries, but Guinea, Upper Volta and Mali as well.

The Mande languages have a Western branch and a (South)eastern branch. Mano and Gio (hard g) are Southeastern Mande languages spoken in Nimba county. The Western branch has two sub-branches, Northwestern and Southwestern. Both Vai, spoken in the Cape Mount area, and Manya (also known as Mandingo) spoken in the border area between Guinea and Liberia are Liberian languages of the northern branch. The other branch contains a set of very closely related languages called the Southwestern Mande languages of which only Loko is spoken outside of Liberia, in Sierra Leone. The rest, Mende, Bandi, Kpelle and Lorma are spoken in the northern part of Liberia.

The location of the Mande languages in Africa is shown in figure 1, the location of the languages of Liberia is shown in figure 2, and figure 3 shows how these languages are related.

FIGURE 1: THE DISTRIBUTION OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES

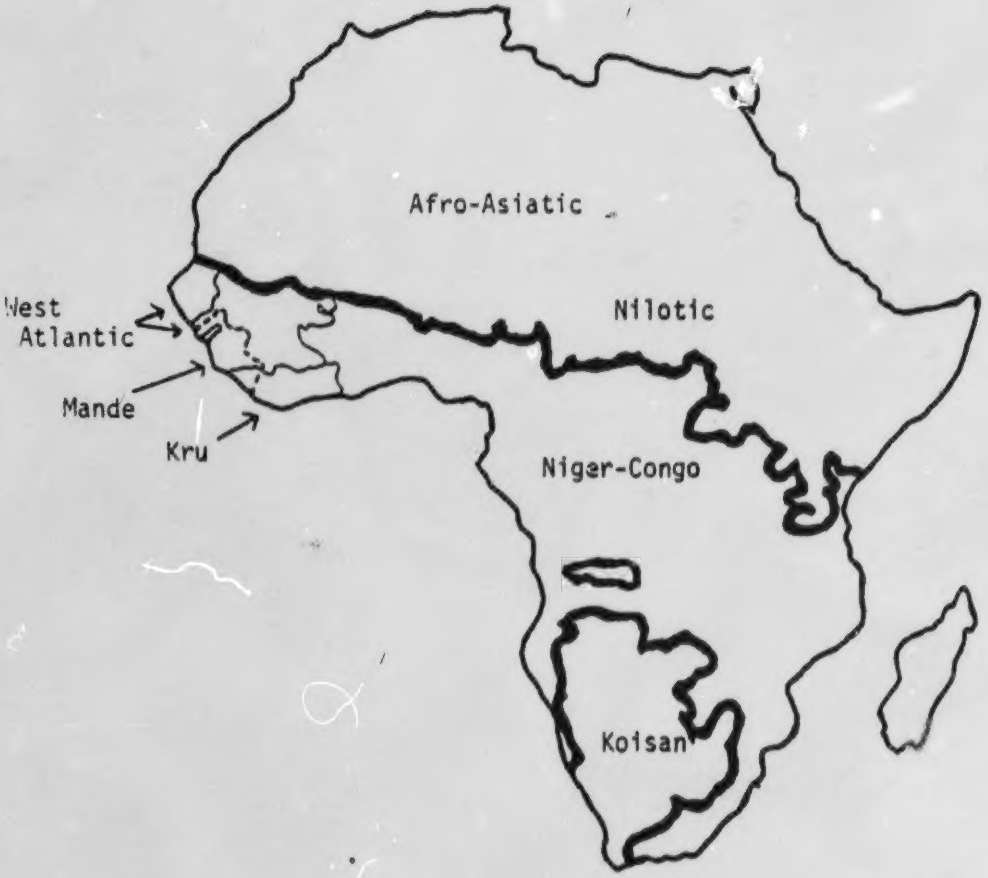

Afro-Asiatic
West Atlantic
Nilotic
Mande
Kru
Niger-Congo
Koisan

FIGURE 2: LOCATION OF LIBERIAN LANGUAGES

(from Liberia in Maps, von Gnielinski (ed. 1972)

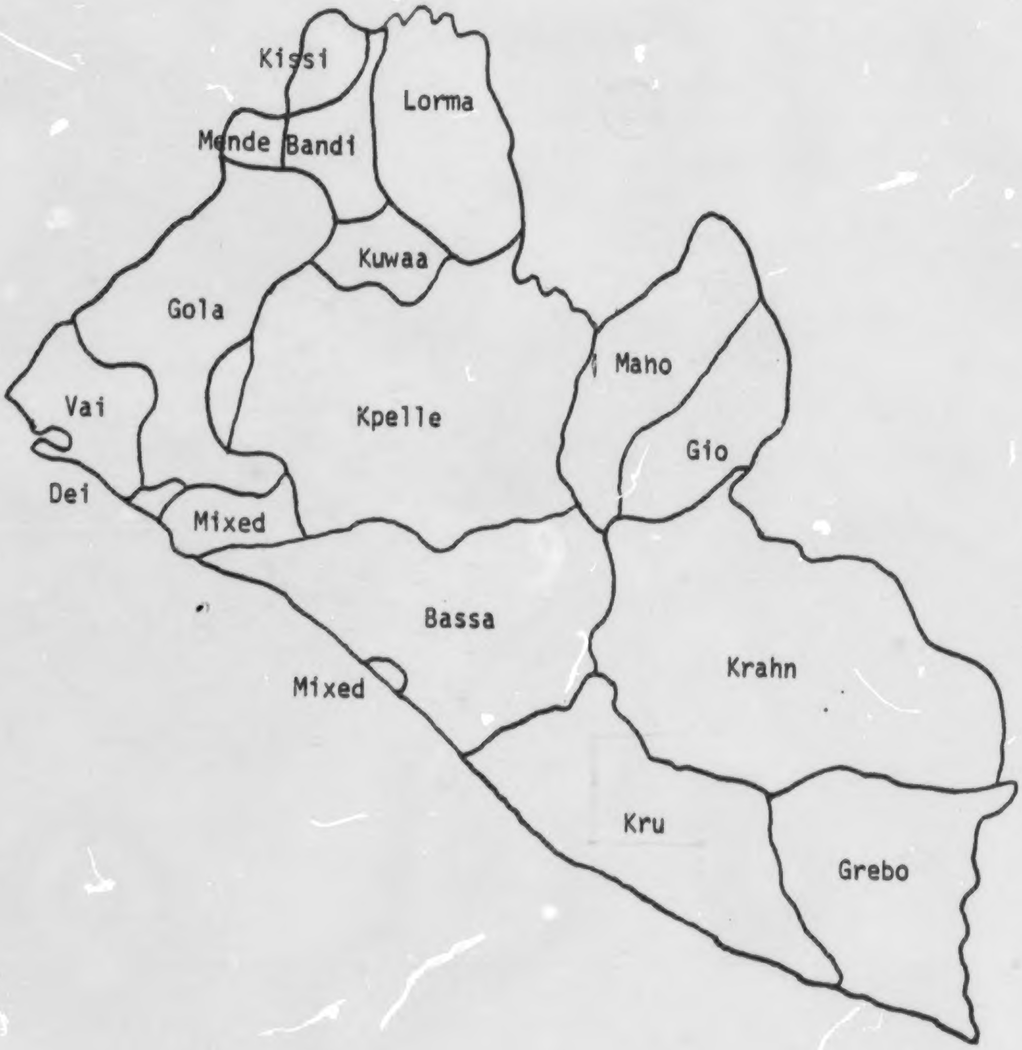

Kissi
Lorma
Mende
Bandi
Kuwaa
Gola
Maho
Vai
Kpelle
Gio
Dei
Mixed
Bassa
Krahn
Mixed
Kru
Grebo

FIGURE 3: THE RELATEDNESS OF THE LIBERIAN LANGUAGES

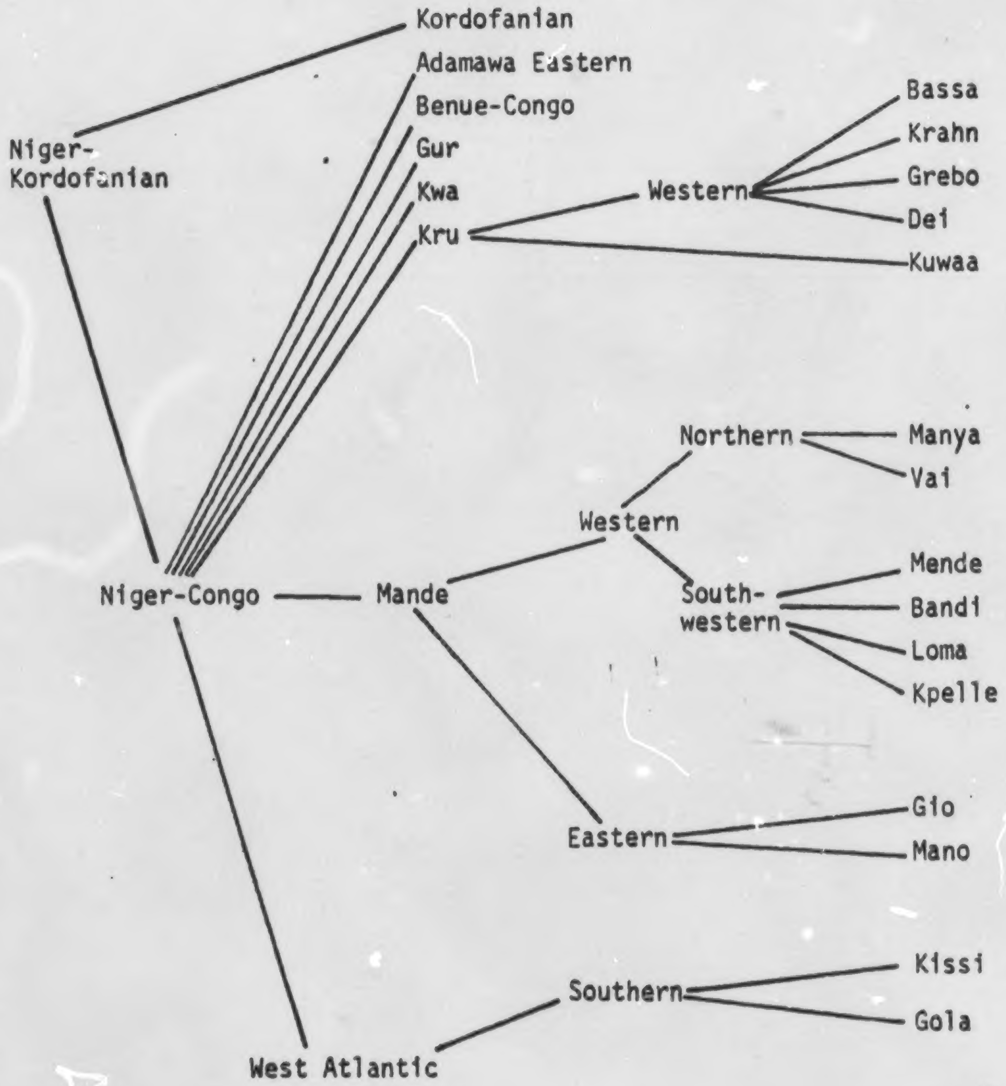

Kordofanian
Adamawa Eastern
Benue-Congo
Gur
Kwa
Kru
Niger-Kordofanian
Western
Bassa
Krahn
Grebo
Dei
Kuwaa
Northern
Manya
Vai
Western
Niger-Congo
Mande
South-western
Mende
Bandi
Loma
Kpelle
Eastern
Gio
Mano
Southern
Kissi
Gola
West Atlantic

FIGURE (4A)

Indo-European correspondences from Greenberg (1957:42)

LANGUAGE	ONE	TWO	THREE	HEAD	EYE	EAR	NOSE	MOUTH	TOOTH
Breton	ünan	dau	tri	penn	lagad	skuarn	fri	genu	dant
Irish	ö:n	dɔ:	tri	kjan	su:lj	kluos	sre:n	bjal	fjakalj
Welsh	in	dai	tri	pen	blegad	klist	truin	keg	dant
Danish	en	to:?	tre:?	ho:dhe	øje	o:rə	næ:se	mon?	tan?
Swedish	en	tvo	tre	hüvud	öga	öra	näsa	mun	tand
Dutch	e:n	tve:	dri:	ho:ft	o:x	o:r	nö:s	mont	tant
English	wən	tuw	θrij	hed	aj	ihr	nowz	mawθ	tuwθ
German	ajns	tsvaj	draj	kopf	augə	o:r	na:zə	munt	tsa:n
French	œ̃, yn	dö	trwa	tε:t	œ̃l/jö	orε:j	ne	buuš	dã
Italian	uno, una	due	tre	tεsta	ɔkkjo	orekkjo	naso	bokka	dεnte
Spanish	un, una	dos	tres	kabesa	oxo	orexa	naso	boka	diεnte
Rumanian	un	doj	trej	kap	okju	ureke	nas	gurə	dinte
Albanian	n'ə	du	tre	kokɔ	sü	vesh	hundə	goja	dbəmɔ
Greek	enas	dhjo	tris	kefáli	máti	aftí	míti	stoma	dbóndi
Lithuanian	vienas	du	tris	galva	akis	ausis	nosis	burna	dantis
Latvian	viens	divi	tri:s	galva	atss	auss	deguns	mute	zobs
Polish	jeden	dva	tši	glova	oko	uxo	nos	usta, gęba	zöp
Czech	jeden	dva	tri	hlava	oko	uxo	nos	usta	zup
Russian	adjin	dva, dvje	trji	galava	oko	uxo	nos	rot	zup
Bulgarian	edin	dva	tri	glava	oko	uxo	nos	usta	zəb
Serbo-Cro-atian	jedan	dva	tri	glava	oko	uhɔ	nos̥	usta	zub
Finnish	üksi	kaksi	kolme	pa:	sihnä	korva	nenä	su:	hammas
Estonian	üks	kaks	kolm	pea	silm	wilja-pea	nina	su:	hammas
Hungarian	ed	ke:t	ha:rom	fÜ:, fej	sem	fÜl	orr	sa:j	fog
Basque	bat	bi	hirÜr	bÜrÜ	begi	belari	südÜr	aho	orts

FIGURE (4B)

Some West African Language Correspondences

LANGUAGE	ONE	TWO	THREE	EAR	EYE	MOUTH	TOOTH	HEAD	NOSE
Fulbe	do	ɗiɗi	tati	nofru	yitere	hunnuko	nyiire	hoore	kinal
Biafada	numa	bihe	biivo	nufa	-girɛ	musu	keede	gaga	-sini
Themne	-in	rɛŋ	-sas	lens	-fɔr	-sɛŋ	-sek	-bump	sot
Limba	funte	taae	tatat	ifa	-ifa	-foti	tiiti	kafa	peren
Kissi	pelɛɛ	miʊʊ	ŋgaa	nilen	-ifɔ	sondoo	kinde	bolɛɛŋ	milindo
Bullom	bul	tin	ra	niu	-hɔi	nyɔhɔl	chaŋ	-bol	-min
Gola	gun	tiel	taal	kenu	efɛ	ɔŋya	kesia	edi	emia
Bambara	kileŋ	fila	saba	tulo	nyiŋ	da	nyiŋ	kuŋ	nun
Dyula	kelẽ	fla	saba	toro	nyadɛn	da	nyi		nun
Kuranko	gɛlɛn	fla	sawa	tule	ye	de	namen		
Manyakan	kelẽ	fila	sawa	tolo	nya	da	nyi	kʊ	nʊ̃
Kono	ŋkele	fela	sawa	toro	ya	daa	ŋirɛ	kun	nun
Vai	ɔɔndo	fela	sagba	tolo	ja	da	nyiŋ	kun	suŋ
Sosso	kedeŋ	firiŋ	saxãŋ	tuli	yǫę	dɛ	nyinni	xʊ	noɛm
Loko	ngila	fele	sawa	ŋguo	ŋgau	nda	ngongɔu	ngu	hokpa
Mende	ita	fele	sawa	ŋgoli	ngahʊ	ndo	ngongolu	ngu	hokpa
Bandi	ngila	fele	sawa	ŋgoli	ŋgasʊ	nda	ngongolu	ngu	sokpa
Lorma	gila	felegɔ	saagɔ	goi	gəazuvɛ	daa	niin	wun	sokpai
Kpelle	tɔnɔ	feerɛ	saaba	woli	ŋei	la	nyiŋ	ŋʊŋ	sʊa
Mano	doo	peetɛ	yaaka	too	nyiɛ	le	sɜ̃	wʊkele	nyu
Dan	dɔ	pira	yaka	tu	nyaga	di	sʊ	goga	nyʊ
We	dɔ	pire	yaka	turu	nyawe	le-bo	so	wun	ne
Nwa	dɔ	pilɔ	a	ɓe	lon	laga	sɔ	me	nye
Mwa	do	ple	yaga	trona	yirebe	di	so	moru	nyi
Bẽ	do	plao	ŋgaõ	turun	yowore	ye	so	mwunu	nye
Guro	du	fia	yaa	tone	yÜe	le	sÜe	mbɔ	mi
Bisa	dinne	hira	karko	tur	yer	le	sɔ	mia	mii
Bobo Fing	tele	pla	saxa	turu	nyono	do	nyini	ŋwon	bi
Dei	boo	sõõ	tãã	lɔɔ	gire	ɲuɛɛn	ɲirɛ	duru	merã
Bassa	do	sõõ	tãã	lɔ̃	gire	uɲɔ	ɲirɛ	tru	mõlã
Guere	doo	sõõ	tã	ɲɔgu	gie	ɲuɔ	nye	debo	mera
Grebo	do	so̰	tã	nuuã	yiie	uuɲɔ	nye	lu	mia
Kuwaa	dee	sɔ̃ɔ̃	tãã	nɔi	sĩ	wɔ̃	kala	wulu	nyu
Akan-Twi	baako	abieŋ	abiɛsa	aso	ani	anó	ɛso	eti	ehwene
Ga	ekome	enyɔ	etɛ̃	toi	hiŋmɛi	daa	ŋo	yitso	gugɔ
Yoruba	eni	eji	ɛta	eti	oju	ɛnu	envi	oli	imu

Invariably, the question of language versus dialect arises in the discussion of African languages, as in the phrase "he spoke an African dialect." The implication of this phrase is of course that there is but one African language. If we draw the recognized distinction between language and dialect, that of mutual intelligibility (if you can't understand the speech of someone, he is speaking a language different from your own, while if you can, it is a dialect of your own language) then the notion of dialect discussed earlier is quite wrong. By the above definition, Africa has somewhere between 1000 - 1500 distinct languages (estimates vary). Many of these languages also have several dialectal variants. At least four distinct dialects have been identified for Kpelle and for Lorma.

Although we may have resolved the problem of dialect, the reader may still be wondering just how closely these languages are related and in what ways they are related. The answer to this question is unfortunately quite complicated so that in the following paragraphs only a partial answer can be given.

To begin with, languages can be compared on the basis of their sound systems, their syntax, their vocabulary and their meaning (see Chapter II for definitions). The most common way to compare languages is to compare how two or more languages will represent a given word. As a general rule, the more basic words two languages have in common, the more closely the two languages are related. Figure 4 shows a comparison of some common words in European languages and in some of the languages in West Africa.

One of the assumptions behind the comparison of figure 4 and the chart in figure 3 is that of divergent development. At one time there was a single group of people who later separated into two or more groups. Once isolated, the language of the two groups developed in different ways until finally after a long period of time, they were no longer mutually intelligible. Presumably, this process has continued repeatedly and is the primary explanation for the degree of linguistic diversity in Africa today.

Yet in addition to divergence, there is also convergent development, that of two different languages becoming more similar as a result of contact and commercial intercourse. It is possible to find two distinct language groups living together, sharing not only similar words, but turns of expression and cultural items. Thus with both the processes of convergence and divergence the precise relation of any one language to another may prove to be extremely complex, much more so at least than figure 3 would have you believe.

CHAPTER II

HOW TO STUDY A MANDE LANGUAGE ON YOUR OWN

1. Introduction

People have been learning foreign languages for centuries both with formal instruction and without. This fact is at least encouraging, though at this point, history has revealed no outstanding method or approach to language learning. Here in Zorzor, I know some high school students who are studying French in school...they are getting nowhere, at the same time, there are high school students who came from other parts of Liberia who learn Lorma within a year outside their daily academic studies.

This anecdote suggests two things, 1) a formal approach does not guarantee learning and 2) an informal approach does not necessarily inhibit it. Furthermore, most efforts to determine what is the most effective method to learn language have usually concluded that the most crucial differences in classroom effectiveness center around the quality of teacher, the organization of classroom procedures and learner interest and discipline. The method involved has rarely been deemed significant.

What this evidence means is that crucial to learning a language is a well-organized learning procedure (no matter what method is involved) and hard work; the more you work, the more you learn (within reason).

What this also means is that any method can be used to learn. Nevertheless it is important that the learner be aware of the variety of these approaches and their implications.

2. Aspects of Language Learning to Consider

If you have ever studied a foreign language before, you probably encountered most of the following situations:

(a) You know what you want to say, but you don't know how to say it either because you don't know the word or how to use it;

(b) Two or three words sound alike, but have very different meanings;

(c) You figured out how to ask the question, but couldn't begin to comprehend the answer;

(d) You said something that you thought was appropriate and everybody laughed.

All of these problems are real, and represent different aspects of language learning that you need to know about.

The first problem points out that there are two modes of meaning in language: that found in words, and that found in the relationship between words. These two modes of meaning are more formally called vocabulary and syntax.

The second problem is another system, the means by which these modes of meaning are signaled. This sytem, more formally termed the sound or phonological system, concerns the contrastive sounds used by the language.

The third problem concerns an overemphasis on the production of sentences and an underemphasis on the comprehension of sentences.

The fourth problem concerns the social context in which the language is embedded, that is, what you said was technically correct in terms of (a) and (b) above, but appeared out of context. Your comment could have been humorous for any of the following reasons:

(a) Thus it was correct, but not expected. That is, since so few foreigners say the right thing at the right time in the right way that the very correctness of the response is out of context.

(b) Your comment may have been correct, but inappropriate, that is, in the specific context, another comment is required. You would no more think of greeting people at a funeral with "hi there" than you would of showing up in a bathing suit.

(c) Your comment may have been humorous for other reasons as well. It may have been correct, but carried an additional meaning. In French if you say you are full rather than satisfied you mean that you are pregnant...a strange thing to say after a fine meal, particularly for a male. When you are in the process of learning the vocabulary and syntax of a language, you can expect some surprisingly humorous developments.

(d) Your comment may have meant something other than intended. In The Lonely African by Colin Turnbull, one missionary is credited with saying "your bottom" rather than "good morning" because the user failed to make a tone distinction. This kind of error is normal when learning the sound system of the language.

For Lorma speakers learning English, the pronunciation of final consonants (the consonants at the end of words) are a problem. One of the general strategies which speakers use is that "when in doubt add an l." Thus I have heard will for way. But for good humor dead bottle for dead body (John Singler, personal communication) is supreme. Let's face it, these things are funny and the best way to deal with them is to laugh. together. You may as well, for you are certain to be next if you are serious about learning a Liberian language.

These differences may be due to pronunciation, as in the above examples or to the wrong choice of words (malaprops).

These problems then, underscore the aspects of language that you need to know about in order to effectively study language. These can be summarized as 1) the organization of language: vocabulary, syntax, phonology; 2) speaking vrs. listening; and 3) social context (usage).

3. The Organization of Language

Language consists of three subsystems: 1) phonology (the sound system of the language); 2) the lexicon (the vocabulary of the language); and 3) the syntax (the system of putting words together to make sentences). In everyday language, language consists of 1) a set of distinctive sounds, 2) a vocabulary, and 3) a grammar: a set of rules stating how sentences are formed.

3.1 Phonology (the sounds of a language)

Every language has a finite set of distinctive sounds which are used to convey meaning. These sounds are called phonemes. While the inventory of these sounds is not the same from language to language, they are similar enough in most cases not to cause problems. Yet there are inevitably cases, however, where one language makes a distinction which the other doesn't. For some reason, if these distinctions are not part of your native language they will be hard to hear and hard to produce, yet with practice they can both be heard and pronounced giving you the same access to the phonemic distinction that native speakers have. Chapter VI contains sound drills designed to help you learn to hear the differences between those sound contrasts found in Liberian languages, but not in English.

3.2 Lexicon and Syntax (vocabulary and word order)

With the distinction between lexicon and syntax as that of words and their combination into sentences, it is worth while to consider what this means. Meaning in language is of two types, that which is general and systematic, and that which is individual and idiosyncratic. For example, we can say that elephants are big and mice are small or we can say that some elephants and some mice are big for their species, or small for that matter. This way of relating size to different items is general and systematic and can be constructed by relating one word to another, that is it can be expressed syntactically.

But it is also possible to express size in another way as the following sets illustrate:

drop, puddle, pond, lake, sea, ocean
baby, child, youth, adult, aged
pebble, rock, boulder

This usage is idiosyncratic, that is: drop, puddle, etc., are not systematically related to each other in form, but are simply different words. Thus the expression of systematic and general meanings is the domain of syntax while the expression of idiosyncratic meanings is the domain of the lexicon.

3.3 Syntax:

It is important to bear in mind that the division between lexical and syntactic meanings is not exactly the same from language to language though it is nearly so. Nevertheless, we may find one language expressing a notion syntactically whereas the other uses a single word. Below are some examples:

English	Typical Mande
calf:	cow child
to dance:	to do dance
sea:	big water
house:	place where one lives
potash:	bitter salt

Thus in your exposure to a new language, you will find that what you expect to be one word is actually several. One of the nice things about Mande languages is that if you learn that the way to say "worker" is literally "farm-work-do-person" and you know the words for "farm, "work", "do" and "person", you do not have to really learn any new words, only a new combination which turns out to be easier for most people. You can also expect to find words which require several words for translation into English.

4. What Does Language Ability Entail?

Everyone has heard of someone who speaks six or seven languages. The questions that this raises are what does this entail and how did they do it.

4.1 Competence and Performance:

In order to speak a language, you have to have considerable knowledge about the language. You have to know the sound system, though perfect knowledge of it isn't absolutely necessary. You have to know some words and some syntactic rules. The question arises, how many words and how many rules?

The number of words one needs to know varies from language to language because of differences in the way concepts are expressed, whether by syntactic devices, or by word compounding or by having one word covering a wide range of concepts. But by rephrasing the question as "how many concepts are necessary?", the question can at least receive an answer, though to my knowledge little systematic study of this question has been carried out. Rather cautiously, then, I throw out the figure of 1,000 to 2,000 concepts as being necessary to comprehend 90-95% of a conversation. This percentage marks the level at which one can keep up with the general meaning of the discussion.

A language is not just a collection of words but, as we have pointed out, it also contains a syntactic system. This syntactic system consists of a set of rules about how to combine words to make sentences. The answer is that you need to know most of them, something any good language text should present. While the general set of syntactic expressions are fixed, the way they are expressed may be straightforward or complex. Plurals in English are easy, but complex in German. Pronouns in English are straightforward but complex in the Mande languages.

4.2 The Question of User Utility:

It is one thing to talk about the kind of information you need to speak a language and another to talk about how it is actually used. For example we can tell someone about how to do multiplication, which principles are involved. That is, we can say that 6 x 7 is 7 added 6 times. Yet when we ask someone "what is 6 x 7?", the answer will be given in less time than it could possibly take to add seven six times. In doing arithmetic, we found it to our advantage to memorize the individual products rather than calculate them each time we need them. The calculator, on the other hand does just the opposite.

This example is intended to emphasize that simply stating the kind of knowledge that is involved in language does not necessarily mean that this is the form in which this information is used. In language teaching, two positions have been taken. One which might be called a "deductive" approach, and the other an "inductive" approach.

The deductive approach presents the learner with a set of rules to learn. Once these rules are learned, the learner is free to construct sentences. The inductive approach argues the reverse, that if you present the learner with a set of sentences that the learner will figure out the general patterns.

This second approach usually also presumes that there is relatively less to generalize about than the first. That is, what people do in learning a language is to learn a sentence type and develop variants of it by substituting words at various places.

These two views are quite different and presume two different notions of the human mind. The deductive approach presumes that the mind is like a calculator with little memory capacity and prefers therefore to generate new information rather than store it. The inductive approach considers the mind to have a much greater capacity for memory.

In this regard, it is true that the mind has a vast capacity for memory. Think of all the experiences, events, jokes and facts you can recall. Think of the words that are available to you, these number somewhere between 10,000 and 20,000 items. What is truely remarkable about this is you can inventory them all within a split second. If I ask you which of the following are English words: "house", "tire", "fleurten", "vice"; you will have no difficulty whatsoever picking out fleurten as the non-English word. In this regard, the human mind is far superior to the computer.

It is this tremendous memory capacity that leads me to emphasize the importance of an approach which stresses the importance of the inductive approach: working with real sentences.

4.3 Integrating the Two Approaches:

This conclusion does not exclude a deductive approach however. The formal presentation of rules and generalizations can help a learner understand why a given sentence is expressed the way that it is and why each element is present. This kind of knowledge cannot be obtained directly from a native speaker of any language unless that person has been trained in linguistics. Such knowledge can be most easily obtained from the grammatical section of a language textbook which has been prepared by someone with formal linguistic training.

These rules are particularly useful in the beginning stages of language learning because they provide the learner with a set of statements with which to evaluate and interpret both incoming and outgoing sentences. However, when the learner becomes more competent in the language, to the point of actively producing and comprehending sentences in an ongoing conversation more or less spontaneously, the learner will no longer have need of these devices. That is, the kind of knowledge that they represent will have been converted into a more useable form.

5. Listening:

Much of traditional language teaching has placed great emphasis on production: the generation of sentences. This approach has implicitly assumed that if you can speak sentences, then you can also comprehend them. We are beginning to take note that these two skills (production and listening) are quite different activities and should be treated separately.

Earlier, we mentioned a problem of learning how to generate questions, but being unable to comprehend the answers. This is a typical problem of traditional approaches. At this time, language teachers are beginning to place more emphasis on being able to comprehend what is said during the earlier stages of language learning. This is not to say that no language production is emphasized, but rather that that comprehension should precede production at all times. This means that early emphasis is placed in understanding what is going on about you rather than being able to talk about it, and emphasis is placed on why a given sentence has the form that it does, rather than how to produce it.

Then the fourth item is introduced and drilled in the same way until the list is complete.

Usually only seven items should be introduced in this way during one drill, and if more messages are to be introduced, then the messages should be divided into two drills.

(b) Practical Sentences:

This approach can also be used to drill practical sentences that the learner would like to use. Here the learner draws up a list of seven practical sentences that he/she would like to know and the tutor introduces them to the learner in the target language in that order.

(c) Comprehending a Text:

Dialog and monolog drills can be initially presented as totally unknown messages (no context). Learners then attempt to pick out what is already familiar to them from previous lessons or experience. This can profitably be repeated only two or three times.

Next the learner is allowed to look at the text to see how it is written, this helps the learner separate the flow of sounds into word sequences and will usually result in the identification of more words and more of the meaning of the sentence.

Next the learner is permitted to study the translation and go over the analysis of the text so that every aspect of the text is understood: the meaning of each word, and the reason for the presence of each element in the sentence. At this point, the learner should know what is going to be said, that is, the context has now been provided, but the usefulness of the text has not yet been exhausted.

The learner can listen to the text again, following along the written text, but this time he/she should be aware of what is being said and should know the meaning of each sentence. In order to do this, it may be necessary to hear the text several times, or to refer back to the analysis to be sure.

Finally, the learner can listen to the text without the use of written material, and should continue to do so until comprehension is 100%.

These texts should be returned periodically to be sure that comprehension is retained, and to reinforce the retention of this knowledge.

NOTE: To repeat a text verbatum is a virtual impossibility for most tutors, either due to bordom or to lack of experience in reading the language you are studying. For this reason it is preferable to record the text initially and rely on your recorder for repetitions rather than your tutor.

By the time the learner has gotten this far, he/she will know a lot of the language even though he/she still cannot produce it. Nevertheless, the production stage will be a lot easier because of this breakdown.

(d) Translation Drills:

One of the problems in production as well as recognition is figuring out or knowing how things would be said in a language. One method is trial and error, (learner says something and is, if lucky, corrected). An alternative to this is the translation drill. The learner either writes a composition in English for the learner to translate, or asks the learner to translate sentence by sentence. Here the learner knows what is going to be said and should have some idea of the words to be used and the kind of construction involved. Thus when the sentence appears, most of the context has already been provided.

Such drills should be taped, so that they can be reused.

(e) Known Event:

Here the learner asks the tutor to talk about a commonly shared event, such as going to the market, visiting a friend's house, or even a folktale told in English. Again the learner will have narrowed the range of contexts and should be able to interpret the message more richly than otherwise.

(f) Picture Drills:

Another way of controlling the context is to use a picture of some scene or activity that the learner is (1) interested in learning about or (2) has some familiarity with already. The learner then asks the tutor to talk about the picture or asks the tutor questions about the picture.

(g) Eavesdropping:

If you find yourself in a situation where the language is being spoken, e.g. a bar, in a taxi, or cookshop, listen to the language with the aim of trying to pick words you know and getting a general idea of what the conversation is about.

(h) Outside the classroom there are also techniques which can be used to narrow the context. One is to place one's self in a place where a known activity will take place. Greetings, marketing, bartering and so forth. When I was in Mexico City a few years ago, I had at my grasp very little Spanish, but I did know the seeming useless sentence "where is the post office?" Well, I found the post office, walked about a block away and asked my question. I knew what the answer had to be so I was able to figure out what the Spanish had to mean. Then I moved two blocks away and repeated the drill. Variations to this kind of exercise are limited only by lack of imagination.

We cannot underestimate the important role that memory has in language learning. We have already suggested that to have a minimum operating capacity a user must have a minimum of 1,000 to 2,000 concepts available for use both in recognition and production, as well as the understanding of how these words are organized into sentences (syntax).

In describing how to develop recognition skills, we suggested that the learner should spend considerable time listening in context: sentences should appear in a context in which their meaning would be clear, words should appear in the context of a sentence. This approach also suggests developing a familiarity with a fixed number of sentences.

Just think what this means: that while the specific goal of the exercise was the recognition of the given words, it is clear that in addition familiarity with these words has developed so that they might be recognized in other contexts. Furthermore, the specific sentences learned serve as the basis for recognizing a set of sister sentences in which only one word has been changed so that, even if the learner does not know the new word, the sentence may be understood due to context. Finally, the learner has learned to listen, a technique which will provide the primary source of new information about the language.

7. Learning Production

But production deserves its due. One cannot go around listening all the time, though I suspect one would be better off with an ability to comprehend what was going on about than with an ability to talk about it. Anyway, learning to produce sentences is also an important language ability.

To this end, particularily during the beginning we recommend that sentences as a whole be memorized. Now everyone claims that they have a weak memory and that memorizing scores of sentences is a real impossibility. Yet such is not the case, though one's language learning memory may not be operating at full capacity. That is, whether if is true or not, one should take the view that one's brain is like a muscle (an increasingly popular view) and that the more you exercise it, the stronger it gets. In partial support of this view is a report by August Schliemann, the archaeologist who discovered Troy, who incidentally claimed that he had a weak memory. Source: Ilios by Henry Schliemann. 1880; London, John Murry).

First of all I took pains to learn to write legibly, and this I succeded in doing after twenty lessons from the famous caligraphist Magnée, of Brussels. Afterwards, in order to improve my position, I applied myself to the study of modern languages. My annual salary amounted only to 800 francs (£32), half of which I spent upon my studies; on the other half I lived---miserably enough, to be sure. My lodging, which cost 8 francs a month, was a wretched garret without a fire, where I shivered with cold in winter and was scorched with the heat in summer. My breakfast consisted of rye-meal porridge, and my dinner never cost more than twopence. But nothing spurs one on to study more than misery and the certain prospect of being able to release oneself from it by unremitting work. Besides, the desire of showing myself worthy of Minna created and developed in me a boundless courage. I applied myself with extraordinary diligence to the study of English. Necessity taught me a method which greatly facilitates the study of a language. This method consists in reading a great deal aloud, without making a translation, taking a lesson every day, constantly writing essays upon subjects of interest, correcting these under the supervision of a teacher, learning them by heart, and repeating in the next lesson what was corrected on the previous day. My memory was bad, since from my childhood it had not been exercised upon any object; but I made use of every moment, and even stole time for study. In order to acquire a good pronunciation quickly, I went twice every Sunday to the English church, and repeated to myself in a low voice every word of the clergyman's sermon. I never went on my errands, even in the rain, without having my book in my hand and learning something by heart; and I never waited at the post office without reading. By such methods I gradually strengthened my memory, and in three months' time found no difficulty in reciting from memory to my teacher, Mr. Taylor, in each day's lesson, word by word, twenty printed pages, after having read them over three times attentively. In this way I committed to memory the whole of Goldsmith's Vicar of Wakefield and Sir Walter Scott's Ivanhoe. From over-excitement I slept but little, and employed my sleepless hours at night in going over in my mind what I had read on the preceding evening. The memory being always much more concentrated at night than in the day-time, I found these repetitions at night of paramount use. Thus I succeeded in acquiring in half a year a thorough knowledge of the English language.

I then applied the same method to the study of French, the difficulties of which I overcame likewise in another six months. Of French authors I learned by heart the whole of Fenelon's Adventures de Télemaque and Bernardin de Saint Pierre's Paul et Virginie. This unremitting study had in the course of a single year strengthened my memory to such a degree, that the study of Dutch, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese appeared very easy, and it did not take me more than six weeks to write and speak each of these languages fluently.

With the effect of the moist air of Holland, my complaint in the chest gradually disappeared during my first year's residence in Amsterdam, and it has never returned. But my passion for study caused me to neglect my mechanical occupation in the office of Mr. F. C. Quien, especially as I began to consider it beneath me. My principals would give me no promotion; they probably thought that a person who shows his incapacity for the business of a servant in an office proves thereby his unfitness for any higher duties. At last, however, through the intercession of my worthy friends, Louis Stoll of Mannheim and J. H. Ballauf of Bremen, I had on the 1st of March, 1844, the good fortune to obtain a situation as correspondent and bookkeeper in the office of Messrs. B. H. Schröder & Co. of Amsterdam, who engaged me at a salary of 1200 francs (£48); but when they saw my zeal, they added 800 francs a year more by way of encouragement. This generosity, for which I shall ever be grateful to them, was in fact the foundation of my prosperity; for, as I thought that I could make myself still more usefull by a knowledge of Russian, I set to work to learn that language also. But the only Russian books I could procure were an old grammar, a lexicon, and a bad translation of Les Adventures de Télémaque. In spite of all my enquiries, I could not find a teacher of Russian, since, with the exception of the Russian Vice-Consul, Mr. Tannenberg, who would not consent to give me lessons, there was not one in Amsterdam who understood a word of the language. So I betook myself to the study of it without a master, and, with the help of the grammar, I learned the Russian letters and their pronunciation in a few days. Then, following my old method, I began to write short stories of my own composition, and to learn them by heart. As I had no one to correct my work, it was, no doubt, extremely bad; but I tried at the same time to correct my mistakes by the practical exercise of learning the Russian Adventures de Télémaque by heart. It occurred to me that I should make more progress if I had some one to whom I could relate the adventures of Telemachus; so I hired a poor Jew for four francs a week, who had to come every evening for two hours to listen to my Russian recitations, of which he did not understand a syllable.

As the ceilings of the rooms of the common houses in Holland consist of single boards, people on the ground-floor can hear what is said in the third storey. My recitations therefore, delivered in a loud voice, annoyed the other tenants, who complained to the landlord, and twice while studying the Russian language I was forced to change my lodgings. But these inconveniences did not diminish my zeal, and in the course of six weeks I wrote my first Russian letter to Mr. Vasili Plotnikoff, the London agent for the great indigo dealers, Messrs. M.P.N. Malutin Brothers, at Moscow, and I found myself able to converse fluently with him and the Russian merchants Matweieff and Froloff, when they came to Amsterdam for the indigo auctions. After I had completed my study of the Russian language, I began to occupy myself seriously with the literatures of the languages I had learned.

August Schliemann

8. F.S.I. Levels

There can be no doubt about it, Schliemann's system worked. Most people however would say, is this the most direct way to language mastery? Can't this approach be made more efficient? The answer is of course yes. And to explain this, we need to examine the system by which the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) determines the language competence of an individual.

The FSI examination is based on six levels ranging from S-0 (no competence) to S-5 (equivalent to that of a native speaker). The crucial level however is S-3 which is really the first stage at which the speaker has good control of the language and can continue developing language competence without special study. I call this level minimal language working capacity.

To attain an S-3 in a foreign lanuage is a real accomplishment and one which a learner who has attained this level can really feel proud of, though this should not by any means undervalue the attainment of the intermediate S-1 and S-2 levels. Furthermore, the development of these intermediate levels should be seen as targets in themselves and as steps along the way. These levels are summarized by the following self-test check list.

A CHECK LIST FOR SELF-APPRAISAL OF SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

(All answers must be YES to achieve at least the level of proficiency listed on the left, except for four items at the S-3 level.)

		YES	NO
S-0+	Can you use a minimum of thirty words in appropriate contexts? (i.e., not just count or recite the days of the week).	☐	☐
S-1	Can you tell someone how to get from here to the nearest hotel, restaurant, or post office?	☐	☐
	Can you ask and tell the time of day, day of the week, date?	☐	☐
	Can you order a simple meal?	☐	☐
	Can you negotiate for a hotel room or a taxi ride at a just price?	☐	☐
	Can you buy a needed item of clothing or a bus or train ticket?	☐	☐
	Can you understand and respond correctly to form questions about your nationality, marital status, occupation, date and place of birth, etc.?	☐	☐
	Can you make a social introduction and use appropriate leave-taking expressions?	☐	☐
	Can you use the language well enough to assist someone who does not know the language in coping with the situations or problems covered by the S-1 range?	☐	☐
S-1+	Can you meet all S-1 requirements and at least three of the S-2 requirements listed below?	☐	☐
S-2	Can you describe your present or most recent job or activity in some detail?	☐	☐
	Can you give detailed information about your family, your house, the weather today?	☐	☐
	Can you give or take simple messages over the telephone? (Forget the telephone, can you give or take simple messages?)	☐	☐

Can you hire an employee or arrange for special services, taking care of details such as salary, qualification, hours, special duties?(can you order a table from a carpenter?) ☐ ☐

Can you give a brief autobiography including a statement of your immediate plans and hopes? ☐ ☐

Can you describe the geography of the United States (or some other country) or familiar location? ☐ ☐

Can you describe the basic structure of the United States government? ☐ ☐

Can you describe the function and purpose of the organization you represent? ☐ ☐

Do you feel confident that you understand what native speakers want to tell you about the above topics at least 80% of the time? ☐ ☐

S-3 Are you afraid that you will misunderstand information given to you over the telephone? ☐ ☐

(Answers should be YES)

Can you speak to a group of educated native speakers on a professional subject and be sure you are communicating what you want to, without obviously amusing or irritating them linguistically? ☐ ☐

Can you listen, take notes, and summarize accurately a speech or an informal discussion on your area of special interests, heard on the radio or over a public address system? ☐ ☐

Can you (on a social occasion) defend U.S. attitudes toward culture, race relations, or foreign aid from attack by an anti-American student or politician? ☐ ☐

Can you cope with such trying linguistic situations as broken-down plumbing, an undeserved traffic ticket, a serious social or diplomatic blunder made by you or a colleague? ☐ ☐

Can you follow connected discourse on a non-technical subject, e.g., a panel discussion on the status of women? ☐ ☐

Can you serve as an informal interpreter on subjects in the S-3 range? ☐ ☐

Do you feel that you have a professional command (rather than just a practical one) of the language? ☐ ☐

S-3+	Can you meet all S-3 requirements and at least three of these S-4 requirements?	☐	☐
S-4	In professional discussions, is your vocabulary always extensive and precise enough to enable you to convey your exact meaning?	☐	☐
	Are you able to alter your speech deliberately, depending upon whether you are talking to university professors, close friends, employees, etc.?	☐	☐
	Can you serve as an informal interpreter for a U.S. senator or cabinet official on all diplomatic and social functions?	☐	☐
	Do you practically never make a grammatical mistake?	☐	☐
	Do you think you can carry out any job assignment as effectively in the language as in English?	☐	☐
S-4+	In discussions on all subjects, is your vocabulary always extensive and precise enough to enable you to convey your exact meaning?	☐	☐
S-5	Do native speakers react to you as they do to each other?	☐	☐
	Do you sometimes feel more at home in the language than in English?	☐	☐
	Can you do mental arithmetic in the language without slowing down?	☐	☐
	Is your vocabulary at least as extensive and precise as in English?	☐	☐
	Do you consider yourself a native speaker of the language?	☐	☐

The difference between S-2 and S-3 is really that between knowing a language so that you can use it in any context, and knowing enough of the language so that you can use it in a fixed context. This means that the skills listed under S-1 and S-2 can be specifically targeted for. That is, it is possible to define a specific set of contexts: biography, greetings, simple messages, etc. in which it is possible to build a working language competence. This can be accomplished by developing a listening ability for the range number of sentences which are likely to appear in that context and a speaking capacity for the specific skills.

By specifically targeting for these goals, it should be possible to achieve an S-1 after 50-60 hours of study (assuming that this time if being used effectively) and it should also be possible to achieve an S-2 after another 100 hours. One of the important things to remember about this phase of language study is that performance rather than competence is being measured, thus it is not how much you know, but how well you use it that counts. This is why context is so very important, for comprehension is as much anticipating what is to be said (context) as it is understanding the content of what is being said. Thus, "hanging in there" and making the effort to communicate (even if by gesture) is at least half the battle.

But while these targets are goals in themselves which the learner can aim for and accomplish, they can also be seen as steps on the way toward real language competence (S-3). The internalizing of a few hundred sentences can serve as the basic corpus of messages which can be expanded and applied to other situations.

In the communications handbook that accompanies this text, this has been the design: the first lessons are aimed at S-1 skills, while the later lessons aim at S-2 skills, so that by the time the book is completed, the learner should achieve an S-2 level and be well on the way to achieving an S-3 ability. Though in all honesty that level will require continued study.

Earlier we suggested ways of developing listening comprehension, what follows is a way of completing the use of the text, the learning of how to produce it.

9. Memorizing a Text (Layering)

Memorization of a text can be viewed as a sequential process beginning with the first word and going on to the next and so forth. Yet there is another way to view the process, and that is to see the text as a series of layers. For example, in learning to comprehend a text (discussed earlier) several steps were outlined, each one gleaning more information from the text, building up in the learner's mind layer upon layer of information about the text. When a learner has learned to comprehend a text, the job of memorizing the text is already half completed. The following steps are listed below:

A. Go over the text sentence by sentence (phrase by phrase and even word by word if necessary) with your tutor to develop as accurate a pronunciation as possible.

One procedure for doing this is for the learner to attempt to say the sentence. If the sentence is correct the tutor will say that it is correct (or signal so by not saying anything); if the sentence is incorrect, the tutor will repeat the sentence. This should continue until the learner at that point has done his/her best.

The major problem at this stage is the generosity of the tutor. The tutor really has to be encouraged to be critical. Thus the learner must repeatedly ask the tutor if that is the real way it is said, or whether it can be said better and should show enthusiasm in the tutor's pointing out these fine points. Otherwise the tutor will be inclined to let pronunciation slide.

B. Once the text has been gone over carefully, the text should be repeated sentence by sentence until a normal rate of speed is achieved. This can be practiced using a variety of techniques. Repeating the sentences after the tutor (or a tape recorder), along with the tutor or by tracking.

Tracking is a technique of repeating a sentence after about a second's delay. This has the effect of separating the listening part of the task from the production part of the task.

C. To be sure you are aware of all the distinctions, the learner should practice writing the sentence down after hearing it. This dictation drill should be done sentence by sentence, and in beginning stages, the sentence should be repeated as many as three times.

D. Writing down the text from memory is also a good exercise. This is a form of self-test which will give the learner a good idea of what is known and what isn't.

E. This stage should be followed by the learner attempting to say the text from memory with the tutor prompting at first.

F. The task is complete when the learner can rattle off the entire text at a normal rate of speed.

G. This exercise can be followed up by a question-answer drill in which the tutor asks questions in such a way that the memorized sentences will be the answers to the questions.

NOTE: Initial texts do not have to be long, as few as five sentences. But the learner should try to increase the length of these texts as soon as possible.

10. Self-Instructed and Learner-Centered Approaches

There are a number of reasons for emphasizing this kind of approach to language acquisition.

1. African languages are usually under such low demand for foreign language instruction that, teachers are unavailable, untrained or at best minimally trained. This means that when a tutor is hired, that person will never make the teaching of the targeted language his profession (unlike French, Chinese or Russian) and will probably be given a crash course in how to teach the language. Inevitably, this person will feel awkward because of the expectations

placed on him/her and the inadequate training given. This situation will create an avoidable tension in the classroom.

2. It is the learner who is the person who will either profit or suffer from the experience. It is the learner who has the most at stake. A successful language learning program will lead to a deeper and a more effective experience for the volunteer or other language learner. This being the case, it would be better to concentrate efforts on helping the learner to learn rather than on helping the teacher to teach.

3. Many language training programs allow insufficient time, regardless of how that time is used to allow for the achievement of a minimal speaking competence. This means that serious learners will have to continue their learning outside the classroom anyway.

4. Learners trained in a teacher-centered program in which they have little control in how the class will be run, are ill equipt to make the transition to learning on their own.

For these reasons, many educators are moving to learner-centered approaches. These approaches place more attention on the learner, giving the learner the sophistication in the types of learning techniques that are available, the ways drills should be run and so forth. While these approaches have their own drawbacks and may be slower during the initial stages, they do have a number of advantages.

1. Tutors are released from their anxiety. Their responsibilities are consonant with their training and experience. They are responsible for (1) providing a model of the target language (2) correcting learner responses and (3) running drills which the learner will help to establish. The tutor is not responsible for preparing lessons, for the success of the student, or for grading the student's progress. Thus the tutor is only responsible for what any native speaker of a language is capable of doing. This situation eliminates the tension of the classroom that arises when these responsibilities are placed on the tutor. As a result the relationship between tutor and learner is more of cooperation rather than apprehension.

2. The learner being placed fully in charge of learning no longer must bear the burden of suffering under a tutor whose methods the learner objects to. If the methods being used are unsuitable, they can be changed.

3. Given insufficient time in a training program, learners will be forced to switch to a learner-centered program anyway if they are going to continue their language learning, so why not begin a learner-centered emphasis from the start?

4. A learner who has experienced learner-center training from the start, will be well prepared to make the transition program to learning on their own.

However, learner-centered language training requires a considerable amount of training of the learner in the techniques and approaches of language learning. This cannot only be done in the abstract, but requires supervision by an experienced language teacher and ideally a textbook which is oriented toward this approach to language learning such as the following textbook. In the communications handbook accompanying this volume, each lesson is both aimed at the learner (though it can be used by a classroom teacher or a partially trained tutor) and contains detailed instructions as to how drills should be run and dialogs used. It presents the grammatical notes in terms which an untrained learner can understand and contrasts the target language with English so that the learner can see exactly where the major points of contrasts. Finally the handbook contains a set of suggestions for self-study, procedures which the learner can carry out on his/her own to continue language study.

11.1 Tutor Selection

When making the transition from a formal language training program to a totally learner-centered program, the first major task will be to locate a tutor who will be willing to help you.

In this regard, it is important for the learner to remember that a number of factors are involved in the tutor learner relationship. Some of these are listed as follows:

1. Personality. There is always the possibility of a personality clash. That for some reason the tutor and the learner do not hit it off, or for that matter they may. Factors here may be age, sex, education and cultural background as well as pure personality differences.

2. Relationship. In most cases, a learner-tutor arrangement will necessarily develop into a deeper relationship involving mutual reciprocations based on available resources. The learner will be given things, have things done for him/her as well as being informed about the workings of the community. In return, the learner can be expected to return the favor in terms of textbooks or school fees if the tutor is a student, money or other gifts. This relationship can be controlled by both parties, and it is in general sound advice to deepen the relationship slowly.

3. Knowledge of language. It is commonly accepted that the real language is known by old people, and not by young schoolboys and girls, therefore, it is often said that if you want to learn the real language it is best to contact the old people. This approach too, has its problems, however, for it may well be that old people do not know English or any other medium of common communication, therefore the learner may actually at first engage a tutor who knows English.

4. Knowledge of how to write the language. For most Liberian languages, a writing system has been established, and which is in use by at least some members of the community. If this is so, it is preferable to find a tutor who can read and write in the target language, for it will help you in recording texts and writing down sentences. You can even ask your tutor to prepare texts, dialogs and sentences for you to study.

5. Reputation of the tutor. Not everyone in the town has the same esteem in the eyes of the community. To some extent the esteem of the tutor will rub off on the learner and vise versa.

These points suggest that in engaging a tutor that one should proceed cautiously. The learner should wait until he/she is established in town or until sufficient contacts are made before showing interest in a tutor. Then one should ask respected members of the community who might be recommended. (Hiring someone without a recommendation is a real gamble.) One might ask other volunteers, teachers, your landlord, village head, pastor or other such persons.

It is always good to not commit one's self too soon. That is by saying that the period is temporary, for a few weeks only or that one wants to try a number of people, one can avoid the problem of being stuck with someone who isn't working or of the embarrassment of having to fire someone.

Finally, when the learner has found a tutor with whom he/she feels confident, the arrangement can be made more permanant. It is only at this time that the learner should gradually allow the relationship to deepen.

11.2 Organizing a Learning Schedule

The most important point to be made here is consistancy. That is whatever program the learner decided to set up, it should be followed religiously. It is far better to maintain a modest commitment of only a few hours or even less than to set a schedule of learning that is too ambitious to keep. The learner should endeavor to establish learning times that are unlikely to be disturbed by special events, and in the event that they are, the language session should be rescheduled.

The second most important thing is to structure the sessions so that the learner and the tutor are aware of what is supposed to take place during the session and what is supposed to be done by the learner as preparation or follow-up. The following schedule is designed for a learning session involving three contact periods per week. This structure is probably too ambitious for the learner who is also holding down an 8 hour job, but if followed will allow the learner to progress rapidly. In the event that the learner has less time to commit to the learning of the language, the schedule can be pared down.

A well-written language textbook ought to have a large number of drills that can be used in the self-instructional mode. Most such textbooks are organized so that a chapter be completed each week by a class meeting five hours per week. The following outline suggests one way in which a textbook chapter can be organized into a weekly lesson plan.

11.3 Use of a Spoken Dialog

Class Period #1	(1) Listen to the dialog with book closed, for comprehension. Record the dialog with a cassette tape recorder for later use. (2) Listen to the dialog, this time following the book (listening for word-divisions and other phonological cues). (3) Analyze the dialog for content. Work with your tutor if necessary so that you understand the full meaning and structure of each sentence.
Homework #1	(1) Listen to the dialog on the cassette recorder for comprehension so that each sentence is correctly identified and each word is heard as a separate entity. (2) Repeat the above as often as is necessary. If the structure of the dialog is unclear, return to the written text, following the spoken dialog word by word until it becomes clear. (3) Write the dialog several times, copying directly from the text (not from memory). (4) Enter new vocabulary items into your notebook.
Class Period #2	(1) Listen again to the dialog spoken by the tutor. (2) Practice saying each sentence with the tutor (using a backward buildup if necessary) until each sentence of the dialog is said flawlessly at a normal rate. (3) Practice dialog with tutor or with other learners in the class.

Homework #2	(1)	Memorize dialog for following class. For beginners this dialog will be quite short (3-4 lines) but by the end of the first year, these dialogs will enlarge to about 20 lines per week.
Class Period #3	(1)	Use the dialog in class. Remember to simulate the context of the dialog completely; stand, sit, look the other person in the eye at the appropriate times, use props.
	(2)	Develop variations on the dialog using word substitution or sentence "transformation" as appropriate to your level of knowledge.

11.4 Use of Written Texts

Written texts should consist of short (ten-sentence) descriptions, stories relevant to a specific context. As the course progresses, the texts will become longer.

Class Period #1	(1)	Presentation, recording and analysis of the text.
Homework #1	(1)	Listening comprehension of the text (sentences as units, words as discrete entities) and the writing out of the text (not from memory).
Class Period #2	(1)	Practice in hearing the text with phonemic accuracy, practice in saying the text at normal speed with phonemic accuracy.
Homework #2	(1)	Memorization of the text (now that it is understood both syntactically and phonetically). This will involve writing it out, saying it orally, and tracking the taped version to achieve normal speed and timing.
Class Period #3	(1)	Recitation of text orally and/or writing it down from memory.
Homework #3	(1)	Correction of noted errors.

11.5 Use of structural drills

All drills should be taped for home listening and practice.

1) Phonological drills:
Basic phonological transcription can be learned through dictation exercises. Errors in these dictation exercises will reveal problem areas in phonemic discrimination.

In consultation with the language coordinator and the textbook, discrimination drills, including minimal pair exercises can be prescribed, recorded and used, both in class and at home.

It is important to remember that learners must be able to hear phonemic differences before they can be expected to articulate them.

Once phonemic differences are mastered, accuracy can be further improved through transcription exercises. Articulation can be further improved through dialog and text repetition, tracing and memorization.

2) Syntactic Drills:
Each drill begins with listening comprehension. It is important that learners comprehend what is going on: the purpose of the drill, the meaning of the words and constructions involved, and what they are supposed to do with it.

Once the drill is understood, learners should go through the drill, repeating each sentence after the tutor if necessary until normal speed and accurate pronunciations are achieved.

The drill is run according to the specifications given in the textbook. Answers and responses must be given at normal speed. If that is impossible, either go back to the preceeding step or abandon the drill and consult with the language coordinator. The drill should be practiced until it is carried out perfectly, though this mastery need not be achieved during the first running of the drill in class.

3) Vocabulary:

A minimum of 40 lexical concepts should be acquired each week. These may come from the text or from the genralized vocabulary lists.

Several types of drills have been developed for the learning of vocabulary in the Communications Handbook companion volume. Space does not permit a detailed statement of these drills, but the following list is indicative of the types involved.

(a) vocabulary
(b) flash cards with pictures on one side
(c) related vocabulary lists
(d) the sens-it-cell

12. Conclusion

This chapter has summarized the thinking, strategy and methodology involved in the study of a foreign language and has gone into the planning and construction of these learning materials. It is presented here for the express purpose of providing the learner with a general understanding of the task and the way to proceed.

CHAPTER III

INSTRUCTIONS TO TUTORS

1. General Remarks

The chances are that if you have been asked to tutor someone in a Liberian language, you probably have never taught your language to a foreigner before. If this is the case, you may be very worried because you are not sure about what to do. If you are worried, continue to read this chapter, for it contains a set of suggestions about what is important in a language learning situation.

2. Preliminary Considerations

Even before you get started, there are some important considerations, the first is the organization of the learning situation. The learning sessions have to be considered important by both the tutor and the learner. To emphasize the importance of these sessions, it is important to "mark" these learning sessions as follows.

A. Time:

> The sessions should have a specific beginning time and a closing time. These times should be kept the same from week to week. There should also be a penalty for lateness and no matter what the reason, missed sessions should be made up.

B. Place:

> The sessions should be held in a specified place which is considered good for learning. Tables and straight chairs are considered better than sofas and beds. Classrooms are better than homes, but homes are better for most people than bars.

C. Agenda:

There should be an agenda or class plan of what is to be done during each period. This can be prepared either by the learner or by the tutor, depending on what has been arranged. An agenda should contain a list of topics to be covered, including: (1) pages in the textbook, (2) correction of homework, (3) practice of dialog, (4) taping of dialogs, (5) vocabulary study, (6) free conversation and so forth. These agendas (technically called "lesson plans") should be stored somewhere (a file, notebook, etc.) as a record of accomplishment during the course of study.

D. Preparation/Followup

A learner should expect to do out-of-class preparation and followup for each session. This may involve studying the dialog, grammar, cultural notes, taped aspects of the class session, vocabulary work, preparation for class discussions or taking excursions into the language community to practice what has been learned. Whatever the event, the tutor and learner should agree to the preparation and followup activities, preferably in writing (see agenda) before the end of the preceding class.

3. The Role of the Tutor

In most cases, the tutor is not required to be an experienced language teacher or someone who knows a great deal about the grammar of the language being studied. Rather, what is expected of the tutor is simply what follows:

A. An ability to speak your language clearly

B. An ability to be patient

C. An ability to point out and correct mistakes.

4. Classroom Rules of Order

There are a number of rules of running a class, which if followed will help to make the class situation useful and productive.

A. Always have a session agenda and stick to the topic. (see 2C above)

B. Always begin on time and stay within agreed upon time blocks.

C. Emphasize the use of the target language. The tutor should try at first to explain things, directions, concepts and so forth in the target language using English only if absolutely necessary (the use of English is usually a hinderance rather than an aid to learning another language).

D. Drills should be run smoothly with no delays or interruptions. If the learners are taking too long to respond, it will be necessary to simplify or change the drill. The instructions for running each drill are given along with each drill in the communications handbook. A drill can be simplified either by skipping the drill altogether or by eliminating some of its complexity. One way to do this is to treat the drill like a dialog to be learned (see instructions for learning dialogs in the communications handbook). Once familiar with the content of the drill, it can then be reintroduced as a drill; this time with better results.

Another way is to have the students read the drill from the textbook, though the normal way to run a drill is without student use of textbooks. These drills should also be recorded onto tape so that they can be replayed as one of the homework activities.

If you and the class are still having trouble with a drill, ask the lanugage supervisor or whoever is in charge of the program to help you.

While many tutors think that they have to provide more than this, this is all that is truely necessary. But, at the same time, the ability to do these things is very important. Because of this, the above points are discussed in more detail below.

A. Speaking Clearly

When you speak your language to your students, you should try to speak at a normal rate of speed. This means that you should not speak too rapidly as if you were in a hurry, or too slowly, as if you were talking to a small child.

B. Being Patient

It is important to remember that learning a language is a slow process because it requires a lot of learning: not only new words, but new ways of saying things which are very different from the way that the learner is used to saying things. You will find that a learner will forget much of what you tell him and that is why you must repeat things frequently: dialogs, storys, drills and so forth. From the viewpoint of the tutor, it appears as though the learners are not very smart. This is why it is so necessary for the tutor to be very patient with the learner.

C. Correcting Responses

While it is important to be patient, it is also necessary to correct errors in the responses that learners give. If they say something incorrectly, they should be told that it is incorrect and be asked to say it again correctly. One way to do this is to simply repeat the response correctly following an incorrect response. The learner hearing this will then correct his response following the model of the tutor. If it is a matter of pronunciation, and the student is unable to pronounce it correctly after two or three tries, then the tutor should tell the learner that the pronunciation is still incorrect, but that it will be possible for him/her to correct it later on. Remember, if the student is shown that his pronunciation of certain sounds is incorrect, the chances are that the student will learn to pronounce the sounds correctly in time.

CHAPTER IV

LEARNING THE SOUND SYSTEM OF MANDE LANGUAGES

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter is designed to provide a deeper basis for the understanding of the sound systems of the Mande languages of Liberia. Although every attempt has been made to reduce the amount of technical language used to convey the information in this chapter, it has not been eliminated altogether, for what is used is felt to be necessary for the presentation.

Nevertheless, what follows can be followed by an enthusiastic reader with no previous training in linguistics or language learning. For those seeking only further practice in the recognition of the phonetic distinctions found in Mande it is possible to skip directly to section F where there are listening exercises which may be carried out with the accompanying cassette tape. Then, if there is some confusion about the nature of the sound contrast being studied, the learner may then refer back to the section which discusses the nature of this contrast.

B. THE SYSTEM OF SOUNDS

A language consists of three major subsystems. It has an inventory of words known as a lexicon. It has a set of rules by which these words are arranged into sentences, known as syntax. Finally it has a sound system which consists of a set of discrete contrastive sounds, known as phonemes. Phonemes, or rather strings of phonemes are used to render words as sound images so that they may be spoken and understood. This chapter is about how those sounds are organized and understood.

While phonemes are written using Roman alphabetic characters, they should not be confused with the letters used to write English. These are non-phonemic, because they violate the principle that a phoneme stands for only one contrastive sound. The following examples illustrate that the English alphabet violates this condition.

Letter	Sound	Word
s	s	see
	z	raise
	ž	measure
c	s	city
	k	cow
o	a	pod
	ɔ	log
	i	women
	ow	smoke

Because of these discrepancies, English is not perfectly phonemic which means that it is not always possible to determine how a word is going to be pronounced (given its spelling) or written (given its sound). Because of these indeterminancies in the writing system of English and many other written languages, linguists have found it useful to develop a phonemic writing system to use when analyzing a language. This writing system is also of value to learners of a language because it eliminates the guesswork in reading and writing in the language.

When you first hear a new language, you will first note that it is made up of a series of syllables. The syllable is a good place to begin breaking down the sounds of language because all three major phonetic elements: consonants, vowels and suprasegmental features are associated with the syllable.

At the heart of the syllable is a syllabic unit which is generally, though not always (as is pointed out later) a vowel. Vowels are sounds that receive their distinctive acoustical properties through the resonant properties of the mouth (oral cavity) and the throat (pharyngeal cavity) through adjustments of the tongue, tongue root, lips and jaw. The various resonances produced by these different oral shapes can be explained by the same principle as the resonant sound produced by blowing on a beer bottle, though the resonances produced by the more complex shapes of the vocal tract are of course more complex.

C. VOWELS

1. Classification

Linguists find it useful to classify vowels by:

a) the location of the tongue:

1. Is it toward the front of the mouth or
2. is it toward the back of the mouth?

b) the location of the jaw:

1. Is the jaw closed so that the tongue is high in the mouth or
2. is the jaw open so that the tongue is low in the mouth?

c) the shape of the lips:

1. Are the lips rounded or
2. are the lips unrounded?

The reason for this classification is that linguists have found that vowels that share common properties, (i.e. high vowels, front vowels or rounded vowels tend to function alike as we will show later). The classification of the vowels used in the Mande languages in Liberia is given in the following chart.

	Front	Back	Back & Rounded
High	i	ɨ	u
High Mid	e	ë	o
Low Mid	ɛ	ʌ	ɔ
Low	(æ)	a	

None of these sounds exactly like those of English therefore the following equivalents should only be taken provisionally, to help you learn to recognize the sounds associated with the symbols. Drills are given in section F to familiarize you with the use of this system in transcribing Mande sounds.

2. Description of Individual Vowels

2.1 The front, unrounded vowels:

/i/ bee, neat, tidy, me

The English vowel differs from the Mande /i/*, by being glided, that is, followed by y a semivowel (see below). Thus the word bee when transcribed phonetically is /biy/. If you say this word slowly, you may sense the /y/ at the end of the vowel.

Due to historical change, English words spelled with an i (e.g. bite) are no longer pronounced with an i (ee sound) but rather an eye sound. In making the transition to the phonemic writing system you may confuse the orthographic i (eye) and the phonemic /i/ (ee).

/e/ ("closed e") day, take, say

The English vowel differs from the Mande e in that it is glided, like the high vowel, it is followed by a y semivowel (see below). Thus the English word day, when transcribed phonetically, is /dey/ or perhaps /dɛy/. You can detect this y glide by saying the word day very slowly. You will note that while you start on the vowel /e/, you end with the vowel /i/. In learning to say this vowel say it slowly and cut off the y "offglide". For many speakers, the first part of the vowel is lower (closer to a phonetic /ɛ/) than a phonetic /e/. You can approximate the higher and tenser /e/ by tightening your lips, as in a smile.

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*The use of the slashes here is to distinguish phonemic transcriptions from orthographic.

Lorma and Kpelle have a definite suffix -i which when added to a word ending in a front vowel produces something like the glided vowels discussed above. This gives an opportunity to hear the glided and nonglided as contrastive forms.

Lorma	indefinite	definite
porcupine	pívį́	pívíí
road	pélé	péléí
house	pɛ́lɛ́	pɛ́lɛ́í

/ɛ/ ("open e")   bed, lead, red, better

The English sound is virtually identical to the corresponding Mande sound.

/æ/ ("diagraph")   bath, laugh

This sound does not occur in the Mande languages, but has been included in the list, because of the potential confusion between the written (orthographic) a of English and the phonemic /a/ (see 3 below).

2.2 The back, rounded vowels:

/u/   school, pool, tube, coo

This vowel, like the English iy is glided, but this time with the semivowel /w/ rather than /y/. Thus the above words are rendered phonetically as /skuwl/, puwl, tuwb, kuw/.

/o/ ("closed o")   go, row, tone, toe

Like the vowel /ey/ this vowel is heavily glided. Again if you say these words slowly, you will note the presence of a w semivowel following the vowel nucleus (e.g., /gow, row, town and tow/.

/ɔ/ ("open o")   caught, law, frog, log

This vowel is quite similar in sound and production to the underlined English vowels to the left. The only problem being that the ɔ sound does not exist in some dialects of American English. If, for example, when you say the words *caught* and *cot* the same way, or cannot hear any appreciable difference between them you are going to have to learn to hear and produce this contrast. Secondly, speakers from different regions do not agree on which English words have this open o sound. For some, words such as *frog*, *log*, *hog*, and so forth are pronounced with an *a* vowel, while for others they are pronounced with an open *o*.

2.3 The back (or central) unrounded vowels:

/ɨ/ ("barred i")   just (see comments)

This is not a contrastive sound in English but occurs as a variant of the general unstressed vowel known as schwa, /ə/. Therefore it is roughly the equivalent of the second vowel in *muffin* or in the word *just* when unstressed.

/ɨ/ appears as a variant of the corresponding front vowel /i/ in Kpelle and southwestern dialects or Lorma, particularly following velar consonants (see below) which because they are articulated with the tongue back tend to draw the front vowel back.

Kpelle (ŋiliŋ/ = [ŋɨlɨŋ] 'bugabug'. (Square brackets are used to mark variant pronunciations). The Lorma *u*, particularly the word *su* 'in' is sometimes pronounced with this variant, e.g. *sɨ*.

/ë/   none

/ë/ is the higher mid equivalent of barred ɨ. It appears as a variant of /e/ in Kpelle and Lorma, particularly following velar consonants. (*k*, *g*, *ɣ*, *ŋ*). For a definition of "Velar" see section D2.1. Kpelle: /Kele/ = [Këlë]

/ʌ/ ("carrat")   b*u*t, c*u*t, p*u*t, h*u*t

This vowel is found in some but not all English words written with a short *u*, (note the pronunciation of *put*, which has an *oo* sound rendered phonetically as a lax *u* written   but not described here.

Like the two back unrounded vowels ʌ is also a variant of the corresponding front vowel ε in Kpelle and Lorma, particularly following velars. Kpelle: /kεlε/ = [kʌlʌ]

/a/ hot, lot, hopper

This is the only low vowel in Mande, and should cause little difficulty to the speaker of English other than the tendency to confuse it with the written (orthographic) a which as we pointed out earlier is pronounced as /æ/.

3. Diphthongs

Diphthongs are sequences of a vowel and a semivowel which tend to act as a single unit. We have already mentioned the diphthongs /iy, ey, uw and ow/ above. In addition, English has the diphthongs /ay/ as in sky, tie and light, /aw/ as in cow and now, /oy/ as in boy, toy and noise. These sounds do not occur in the Mande languages. However, the sequences /ii, ei, εi and we now add/ai/ are found in some of the Mande languages but because i acts as a full vowel and not a nonsyllabic semivowel, these are generally not considered diphthongs.

4. Orthographic Conventions

As mentioned earlier the phonemic writing system is not in wide use for the writing of Liberian languages. For example personal names and locations have been rendered in standard English orthography. Becuase of the inadequacies of the English orthography to render certain Africa sounds, a number of conventions have been developed. These are given as follows:

Convention	Phonimic Value	Comments/Examples
ie	/i/	Bodegie = /Bodɛgi/
ue	/u/	Bague = /Bagu/
eh	/ɛ/	Zleh Town = /Zlɛ taω̃/
ea*	/ɛ/	Salayea = /Salayɛ/
or	/ɔ/	Zorzor = /Zɔzɔo/ Lorma /Lɔɔma/

*This seems to be a Lorma/Kpelle convention only.

5. Nasalized Vowels

A nasalized vowel is a vowel in which some sound is allowed to escape through the nose (nasal cavity) as well as the mouth (oral cavity). While nasal vowels exist in English they are noncontrastive variants of oral vowels usually derived form the nasalization of an adjacent nasal consonant spilling onto the vowel, as such words as moon, [mũwn]; soon [sũwn]; and can't [kæ̃æ̃t] illustrate. Nasalization is marked by placing a tilde /~/ over the vowel. In the Mande languages, nasalization is contrastive...especially in Kpelle.

6. Vowel Length

Mande languages have contrastive vowel length. That is some syllables may be longer in duration than others. This difference can signal a difference in meaning as in the following Lorma examples:

kálíí	hoe	káálíí	snake
máságìì	chief	mááságìì	corn

D. LEARNING MANDE CONSONANTS

1. Classification

In addition to the vowels, which form the nucleus of most syllables, are the consonants. They are so called because they "sound with" the vowel and are accordingly found on either side of the vowel. While it is common to find consonants on either end of the English syllable, s t r e n g th, consonants in Mande tend to appear before rather than after the vowels. In other words, Mande syllables tend to be "open" (an open syllable is one in which no consonants follow the vowel, e.g., pɛ, lɛ, kpɔ). The one exception to this is the velar nasal /ŋ/ in Kpelle. Some open syllables cause trouble for English speakers, because the sound ɛ does not occur in English open syllables. (This is the reason for the development of ea and eh as a way of writing /ɛ/: see section C.)

Furthermore, Mande allows very few consonant clusters in a syllable initial position (before the vowel). These clusters only involve /l/, (as in /Flomo/ 'personal name' and as in /kwele/ 'big.'

The consonants of the Mande languages are given in tabular form below:

	Labial	Dental	Palatal	Velar	Labio Velar
STOPS:					
Voiceless	p	t	č	k	kp
Voiced	b	d	ǰ	g	
IMPLOSIVES:	ɓ	ɗ			gɓ
FRICATIVES:					
Voiceless	f	s	š		
Voiced	β V	z	ž	ɣ	
NASALS:	m	n	ñ	ŋ	ŋm
LIQUIDS:		l,r			
SEMI VOWELS:			y		w

These sounds have been arranged in such a way that the rows and columns contain similar classes of sounds. For example, it was pointed out in the preceeding section that the front vowels (/i, e and ɛ/) were often backed (converted to ɨ, ë and ʌ respectively) or that vowels tended to be nasalized following a nasal consonant. These terms, of course do not have to be learned, though they may be useful in helping you understand the pronunciation of these sounds.

2. Points of Articulation

Part of the production of a consonant involves either the complete or partial obstruction of the flow of air in the oral cavity. This is accomplished through bringing an articulator, lower lip, or the front, mid or back of the tongue into proximity with a point of articulation associated with the upper part of the mouth. These points of articulation are discussed below. Individual sounds will be discussed later.

2.1 Labial:

The term labial means "pertaining to the lips." There are two types of possible labial articulation: bilabial (both lips) /p, ɓ, and β/ and labial dental (lower lip and upper teeth) /f, and v/.

2.2 Dental:

Dental articulations involve moving the front part of the tongue behind the upper teeth as in /t, d, s, z, n, r and l/.

2.3 Palatal:

While these sounds are rare in Mande languages they do occur. They are produced by bringing the mid part of the tongue in the hard palate region as in /č, ǰ, ď, ž, ñ and y/.

2.4 Velar:

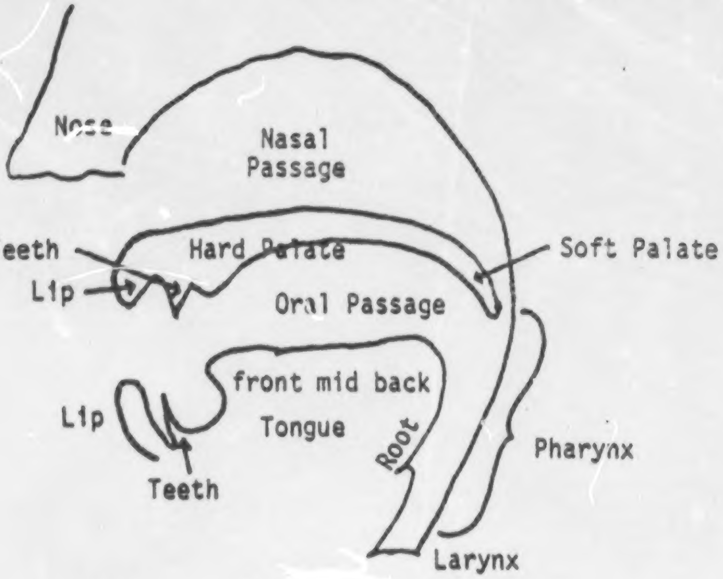
This sound is produced by raising the back of the tongue to the region of the soft palate as in /k, g, ɣ, ŋ./

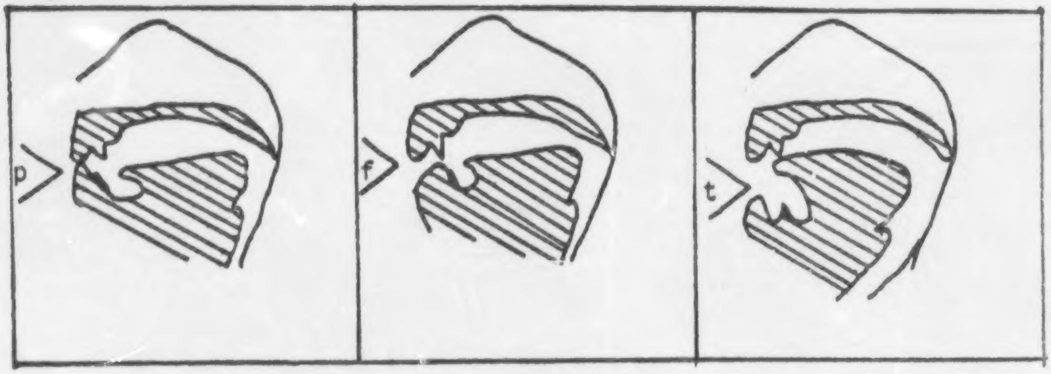
2.5 Labio-Velar:

This sound is the most difficult sound for speakers of English to master. First it involves the simultaneous articulation of a labial and a velar. It is as though you were trying to say cookpot or lugbolt but with open syllables (e.g. coo-kpot and lu-gbolt). Secondly, these sounds are often pronounced with ingressive air (the air moves into the mouth during the first moments of articulation before it is followed by egressive air from the lungs (the normal mode). This implosion is more typical of gb than kp.

3. Picturing the Points of Articulation.

The following cross sections of the human vocal apparatus may prove useful in understanding how the various points of articulation are located.

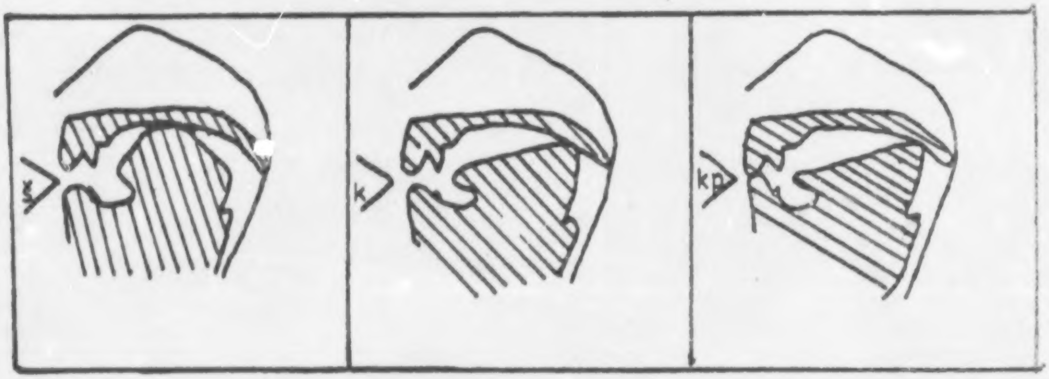

Nose
Nasal Passage
Teeth
Hard Palate
Soft Palate
Lip
Oral Passage
front mid back
Lip
Tongue
Root
Pharynx
Teeth
Larynx



Bilabial Stop

Labial-Dental

Dental



Palatal

Velar

Labio-Velar

4. Manner of Articulation

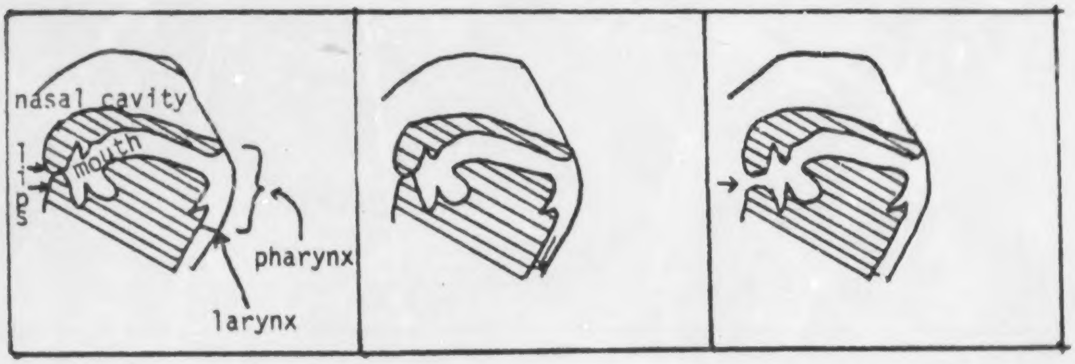
Sounds can also be classified by how they are produced at the point of articulation. This is called the manner of articulation.

4.1 Obstruents:

Obstruents are sounds which involve a radical obstruction of the air stream, either complete blockage as in stops or partial blockage as in fricatives. Obstruents may be either voiced or voiceless which means that the vocal cords are either vibrating or not respectively. You can detect the difference between voicing and nonvoicing either by putting your fingers on your larynx (Adam's apple) or in your ears while you are saying these sounds. You will no doubt notice that in English, the fricatives /f/ and /z/ are more heavily voiced than the stops /b, d and g/. This is because in English, the voiceless stops /p, t, and k/ are heavily aspirated. This means that they are followed by a puff of air (capable of blowing out a candle) which devoices the beginning of the following vowel. Because the aspiration also serves to distinguish English voiceless vowels, the voicing distinction is not crucial. Fortunately for English speakers, the voiceless obstruents of Mande are also aspirated, though not as heavily. The two sounds /č/ and /ǰ/ listed as palatal stops in the previous illustration are actually affricates. This means that phonetically they consist of a stop followed by a fricative [tš] and [dž] respectively. However because they function as a unit, they are given the unitary symbols /č/ and /ǰ/.

4.2 Implosives:

The normal manner of articulation involves the use of (egressive) air coming from the lungs. In the articulation of implosives, air is drawn into the mouth by creating a partial vacuum in the pharynx by first closing it off at either end by making a velar, dental or labial stop at one end and a gluttal stop (closing the larynx) at the other end. Then the pharynx is stretched by lowering the larynx and in so doing creating a partial vacuum in the pharynx. Thus when the stop is articulated, for a brief moment, air will rush into the mouth briefly giving it its distinctive sound before the egressive air from the lung resumes.



closure lowering release

The remaining set of consonants, the nasals, semi-consonants and semivowels are all voiced. Nasals can best be defined as voiced stops with the added feature of the opening up of the nasal passage.

The semi-consonants and the semivowels are like the nasals are resonant which means that there is less obstruction of the air stream than in the case of the stops and fricatives (known collectively as obstruents). The lack of obstruction allows the vocal tract to resonate giving the nasals, semi-consonants and semivowels their distinctive acoustical character.

Unlike the nasals where the resonance is produced in the nasal cavity, the resonance of the semi-segments is produced in the oral cavity. Semi-consonants are distinguished from semivowels in that semi-consonants are considered less obstructed or weakened consonants while the semivowels are considered more obstructed than true vowels.

4.3 Sonorants:

The remaining sets of consonants are called sonorant becuase in addition to having an oral obstruction of some sort they also have resonance. For example in the nasals, the way is opened for sound to move into the nasal cavity which is a resonant chamber. In the case of the liquid _l_, the air is permitted to escape around the sides of the tongue producing resonance. And finally, in the case of the semivowels /y/ and /w/ which are nonsyllabic vowels, (i and u respectively) the resonance is merely dampened. Sonorants, which also include all the vowels are generally voiced. All sonorants have the capacity to be syllabic. As pointed out above the syllabic equivalents of /y/ and /w/ are /i/ and /u/ respectively. Other syllabic sonorants can be marked by placing an apostrophe directly under the segment. In the Mande languages nasals are often syllabic as in Kpelle: ḿ̩búlú, Bande: ǹ̩dàmbángí. Lorma once had these sounds but they have since been lost.

4.4 Concluding Remarks

Much of what was presented here was quite technical and beyond what you really need to know to learn a Mande language. Yet it was presented for a number of reasons:

(1) it may help you to better understand how the consonant system of a language is structured

(2) that Mande languages are an interesting and fruitful area of scientific inquiry

(3) and because we thought you'd like to know.

E. MANDE SUPRASEGMENTALS

1. Classifications

In addition to consonants and vowels, a syllable may also posses a number of characteristic features called suprasegmentals. They are so called because their distinctiveness may transcend a single segment.

Features often considered to be suprasegmental are stress or syllable prominance, tone, vowel length and nasalization. Vowel length and nasalization have been presented in the section on vowels.

2. Stress

While stress is generally non-contrastive in Mande it is generally distinctive. In Kpelle, it falls on the first high-toned syllable in the word, or if the word has no high tones, it falls on the first syllable. Stress is acoustically marked by an increase in the loudness of the syllable and is often accompanied by a slight increase in the length of the syllable.

3. Tone

Tone in Mande is characterized by relative pitch. That is a high tone is relatively higher in pitch than a low tone and vice versa. No Mande language has more than three distinctive pitch levels. Kpelle and Mano have three: high, mid and low, while Lorma and Manya have two. The following contrasts are from Kpelle:

high	pɛ́lɛ́	'house'
mid	pɛ̄lɛ̄	'road'
low	bɛ̀lɛ̀	'trousers'

The remaining Mande languages have only two level tones, high and low. The above contrasts appear in Mende as follows:

high	pɛ́lɛ́	'house'
low high	pèlé	'road
low	bɛ̀lɛ̀	'trousers'

In Lorma due to some historical change, the tones of the above words are high, though the different words to exert an influence on the following word as the following examples show.

pɛ́lɛ́	'house'	pɛ́lɛ́nììnɛ̀	'new house'
pélé	'road'	péléníínɛ́	'new road'
bɛ́lɛ́	'trousers'	bɛ́lɛ́niinɛ́	'new trousers'

3.1 Contour Tones

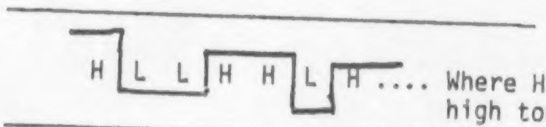
Contour tones are tones that actually rise or fall, rather than remain at the same pitch throughout the syllable. When these tones appear on a single syllable, they are written as follows:

falling	V̂	Kpelle:	ɓû	'owl'	Mende:	mbû	'owl'
rising	V̌	Kpelle:	mɔ̄lɔ̌ŋà	'rice'	Mende:	mbǎ	'rice'

Rising tones and falling tones are heard in Lorma as sentence level intonations. A comma or a question mark following a low tone will produce a rising tone. A period following a high tone will produce a falling tone. Since this is not a property of the word, and since the tonal influence is really marked by the punctuations, these rising and falling tones are not otherwise marked.

3.2 Down-Drift and Down-Step

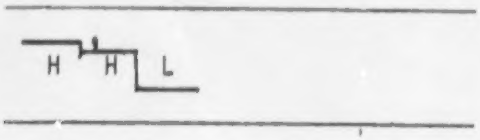
In most Mande languages there is some downdrift and downstep. Downdrift is a general condition where a high tone following a string of one or more low tones is not as high in absolute pitch as the high tone preceding the low tone. Graphically this condition can be shown as follows:



Where H represents a high toned syllable and where L represents a low toned syllable.

3.3 Downstep

Downstep is very much like downdrift except here the lowered high follows a high tone directly. It is as though the intervening low tones were lost. Downstepped high tones are marked with an apostrophy before the high-toned syllable as in the following graphic example:



Downstep is not found in Lorma and has only a limited distribution in Kpelle where it occurs only at the end of sentences.

4. Word Types

Although not strictly speaking suprasegmental, it is worth mentioning that Mande words have definite phonological shapes. As mentioned earlier Mande syllables tend to be open and preceded by a single consonant. Such a syllable structure can be represented as CV where consonants are represented by the symbol C and vowels by V.

Pronouns, postpositions and verbal particals tend to be monosyllabic while nouns and verbs tend to be bisyllabic; words containing more than two syllables are either borrowings or morphologically complex (composed of more than one word). Given these facts, the learner can say a lot about the nature of the word simply on the basis of its phonological shape.

F. LISTENING AND TRANSCRIPTION EXERCISES

The following exercises have been recorded on tape. They are constructed in such a way that you may either do them orally, by covering up the answer with a card, or you may practice writing down the answers either in the space provided, or preferably on a sheet of scratch paper. Please note, that while these exercises will give you a general ability to recognize and transcribe these sounds you will find that additional work will be necessary with your target language before you can hear them clearly.

The Vowels

1. e vrs ey (If the vowel is glided write /ey/ while if it is not, write /e/.

1.		ey
2.		e
3.		e
4.		ey
5.	b t	bet
6.	b t	beyt
7.	f l	feyl
8.	f l	fel
9.	p n	peyn
10.	p n	pen
11.	s m	sem
12.	s m	seym
13.	l	le
14.	l	ley
15.	s s	sesey
16.	t l	teyle
17.	m m	meme
18.	k t	kete
19.	s	sey
20.	s	se

2. i vrs e

1. ________ i
2. ________ e
3. ________ e
4. ________ i
5. s________ si
6. s________ se
7. t________ te
8. t________ te
9. t________ ti
10. l________ le
11. l________ li
12. p____l____ pele
13. p____l____ pili
14. p____z____ pize
15. p____z____ pizi
16. f____l____ fili
17. f____l____ feli
18. f____l____ file
19. l____p____ lepe
20. l____l____ lili

3. e vrs ɛ vrs i

1. ________ e
2. ________ e
3. ________ ɛ
4. ________ e
5. ________ i
6. ________ e
7. ________ ɛ
8. s________ se
9. s________ sɛ
10. s________ si
11. p____l____ pɛlɛ
12. p____l____ pele
13. p____l____ pili
14. p____l____ pile
15. p____l____ peli
16. p____l____ pɛlɛ
17. s____l____ selei
18. t____l____ tɛlɛi
19. t____l____ tilɛ
20. p____l____ pɛle

4. o vrs ow

1. ______________ o
2. ______________ ow
3. ______________ ow
4. ______________ o
5. g ______________ go
6. g ______________ gow
7. s ______________ sow
8. s ______________ so
9. t ______________ tow
10. t ______________ to
11. t n ______________ town
12. t ______________ to
13. f l ______________ folo
14. f l ______________ folow
15. k l ______________ kolo
16. k l ______________ kolei
17. k ______________ koo
18. k ______________ kow
19. m l ______________ molo
20. b n ______________ bono

5. o vrs u

1. ______________ o
2. ______________ u
3. ______________ o
4. ______________ o
5. ______________ u
6. g ______________ go
7. l ______________ lo
8. l ______________ lu
9. t l ______________ tolo
10. p l ______________ pulu
11. f l m ______________ folomo
12. g l ______________ gulu
13. g l ______________ gulo
14. k l ______________ kolo
15. k l ______________ kolu
16. m l ______________ mulu
17. m l ______________ molu
18. n w ______________ nowo
19. n w ______________ nowu
20. t ______________ too

6. o vrs ɔ vrs

1. ____________ o
2. ____________ ɔ
3. ____________ ɔ
4. ____________ o
5. ____________ o
6. ____________ ɔ
7. ___t________ tɔ
8. ___t________ to
9. ___g________ go
10. ___g________ gɔ
11. ___g___l____ gɔlɔ
12. ___k___l____ kɔlɔ
13. ___k___l____ kolo
14. ___g___l____ gulu
15. ___g___l____ gɔlɔ
16. ___t___l____ tɔlo
17. ___t___l____ tulo
18. ___t___l____ tolu
19. ___p___l____ pɔlu
20. ___p___l____ polu

7. a vrs ɔ

1. ____________ a
2. ____________ ɔ
3. ____________ a
4. ____________ ɔ
5. ___p________ pa
6. ___p________ pɔ
7. ___p___l____ pɔlɔ
8. ___p___l____ pala
9. ___t___l____ tɔla
10. ___t___l____ talɔ
11. ___t___l____ talai
12. ___p___l____ pɔlɔi
13. ___p___l____ pɔlu
14. ___p___l____ palu
15. ___p___l____ palo
16. ___p___l____ pola
17. ___p___l____ pɔla
18. ___p___l____ palɔ
19. ___k___p____ kɔpɔ
20. ___k___p____ kapa

8. ∧ vrs a vrs ë

1. ______________ a
2. ______________ ∧
3. ______________ a
4. ______________ a
5. ____b_________ ba
6. ____b_________ b∧
7. ____b____l____ bala
8. ____b____l____ b∧l∧
9. ____p____l____ pala
10. ____p____l____ p∧lu
11. ____t____l____ tala
12. ____t____l____ t∧le
13. ____t____l____ tëlë
14. ____g____l____ g∧l∧
15. ____g____l____ gëlë
16. ____g____l____ gala
17. ____p_________ pa
18. ____p_________ pë
19. ____p_________ p∧
20. ____p_________ pë

9. ∧ vrs ë vrs ɨ

1. ______________ b∧
2. ______________ bë
3. ______________ bɨ
4. ______________ gɨ
5. ______________ gë
6. ______________ gë
7. ______________ s∧
8. ______________ së
9. ______________ së
10. ______________ sɨ
11. ______________ kɨ
12. ______________ k∧
13. ______________ kɨ
14. ______________ kë
15. ______________ fë
16. ______________ fɨ
17. ______________ f∧
18. ______________ fa
19. ______________ fë
20. ______________ tɨ

10. ʌ vrs ë vrs ɨ vrs e vrs ε

1. ______________ tεlε
2. ______________ tʌlʌ
3. ______________ gele
4. ______________ gële
5. ______________ kili
6. ______________ kɨlɨ
7. ______________ kele
8. ______________ këlë
9. ______________ kʌlʌ
10. ______________ kεlε
11. ______________ mʌ
12. ______________ mε
13. ______________ mi
14. ______________ mɨ
15. ______________ bë
16. ______________ ti
17. ______________ sʌ
18. ______________ fɨ
19. ______________ fε
20. ______________ gë

Mande Consonants

The following consonants should give you little difficulty and for that reason no drills are given: p, t, k, b, d, g, f, v, s, z, m, n, l, y and w.

11. kp vrs p vrs k

1. ______________ ka
2. ______________ pa
3. ______________ kpa
4. ______________ kpa
5. ______________ ka
6. ______________ pa
7. ______________ kpε
8. ______________ kε
9. ______________ pε
10. ______________ kpε
11. ______________ kpaka
12. ______________ pakpa
13. ______________ kapa
14. ______________ kpapa
15. ______________ kpiki
16. ______________ pike
17. ______________ kpolo
18. ______________ kulu
19. ______________ pulu
20. ______________ kpekpe

12. gb vrs g vrs b vrs kp

1. _______________ ba
2. _______________ ga
3. _______________ gɓa
4. _______________ gɓ̂a
5. _______________ gɓ̂ε
6. _______________ bε
7. _______________ bε
8. _______________ gε
9. _______________ gu
10. _______________ bu
11. _______________ gɓu
12. _______________ bulu
13. _______________ gulu
14. _______________ gɓ̂ulu
15. _______________ saba
16. _______________ sagɓa
17. _______________ saga
18. _______________ taba
19. _______________ tokpo
20. _______________ tɔkpɔ

13. gb vrs b vrs b vrs g vrs kp

1. _______________ ga
2. _______________ gɓ̂a
3. _______________ ɓa
4. _______________ gɓa
5. _______________ ɓ̂a
6. _______________ ba
7. _______________ ɓε
8. _______________ bε
9. _______________ bε
10. _______________ ɓε
11. _______________ ɓo
12. _______________ gbo
13. _______________ kpoli
14. _______________ ɓoli
15. _______________ buli
16. _______________ gɓuli
17. _______________ ɓuli
18. _______________ kpuli
19. _______________ puli
20. _______________ ɓaɓa

14. d vrs d (Kpelle only)

1. ____________ di
2. ____________ ɗi
3. ____________ ɗo
4. ____________ ɗu
5. ____________ du
6. ____________ dolo
7. ____________ dolo
8. ____________ tolo
9. ____________ dili
10. ____________ ɗili

15. mb, nd, nj, ŋg, ngb

1. ____________ ba
2. ____________ mba
3. ____________ de
4. ____________ nde
5. ____________ ye
6. ____________ nje
7. ____________ gu
8. ____________ ngu
9. ____________ gɓa
10. ____________ ngbu
11. ____________ mbi
12. ____________ ndi
13. ____________ ngi
14. ____________ ngbu
15. ____________ nji
16. ____________ banja
17. ____________ tanda
18. ____________ sungɔ
19. ____________ wundɔ
20. ____________ samba

16. p vrs β vrs v vrs f

1. ______________ pa
2. ______________ fa
3. ______________ va
4. ______________ fa
5. ______________ va
6. ______________ βa
7. ______________ fa
8. ______________ va
9. ______________ va
10. ______________ βa
11. ______________ βi
12. ______________ vi
13. ______________ vili
14. ______________ βili
15. ______________ fili
16. ______________ βulu
17. ______________ vulu
18. ______________ fɔlɔ
19. ______________ βɔlɔ
20. ______________ vɔlɔ

17. š vrs ž vrs č vrs ǰ

1. ______________ sa
2. ______________ ča
3. ______________ sa
4. ______________ či
5. ______________ ǰi
6. ______________ ǰe
7. ______________ že
8. ______________ še
9. ______________ se
10. ______________ še
11. ______________ zowo
12. ______________ žowo
13. ______________ sii
14. ______________ šii
15. ______________ čii
16. ______________ kpaza
17. ______________ masa
18. ______________ tiča
19. ______________ baǰi
20. ______________ žošo

18. γ vrs g

1. ______________ ga
2. ______________ ga
3. ______________ γa
4. ______________ γa
5. ______________ γi
6. ______________ γu
7. ______________ gu
8. ______________ γu
9. ______________ γe
10. ______________ γɔ
11. ______________ saγa
12. ______________ gaγa
13. ______________ γili
14. ______________ gili
15. ______________ γale
16. ______________ γale
17. ______________ paγa
18. ______________ paga
19. ______________ paγɔ
20. ______________ pagɔ

Suprasegmental Drills

19. Long vrs Short Vowels

1. ______________ babaa
2. ______________ baaba
3. ______________ sasasaa
4. ______________ saasasa
5. ______________ sasaasaa
6. ______________ sɔɔla
7. ______________ teveea
8. ______________ masagii
9. ______________ fiibɛɛ
10. ______________ saagɔ
11. ______________ tilaa
12. ______________ tiilaa
13. ______________ tasaata
14. ______________ kpaasagii
15. ______________ mukulu
16. ______________ maanɛɛvɛ
17. ______________ niinɛi
18. ______________ bɔvɛlaale
19. ______________ kooligii
20. ______________ pagɔ

20. Nasalized vrs Oral Vowels

1. ______________ ba
2. ______________ bã
3. ______________ babã
4. ______________ bãba
5. ______________ lamãã
6. ______________ lamaa
7. ______________ lãmaa
8. ______________ lamaa
9. ______________ tɔlĩlĩ
10. ______________ tutita
11. ______________ kãlã
12. ______________ kala
13. ______________ põõ
14. ______________ pɛ̃ɛ̃soe
15. ______________ mãdigo
16. ______________ sɔ̃ɔ̃ti
17. ______________ wĩĩgii
18. ______________ pɔkɔpa
19. ______________ pivugii
20. ______________ mũlũba

21. High Tone vrs Low Tone

1. ______________ bábá
2. ______________ bábà
3. ______________ bàbá
4. ______________ bàbà
5. ______________ bábà
6. ______________ títí
7. ______________ tìtì
8. ______________ kùlú
9. ______________ kúlù
10. ______________ kúlú
11. ______________ tátàtá
12. ______________ tátátà
13. ______________ tàtátá
14. ______________ tàtátà
15. ______________ tàtàtà
16. ______________ kákátá
17. ______________ tákákà
18. ______________ màmámá
19. ______________ màmámà
20. ______________ kúlùkú

22. High Tone, Low Tone and Downstep

1. ______________ bábá
2. ______________ bábà
3. ______________ báꜜbá
4. ______________ bábàꜜbá
5. ______________ bábàbá
6. ______________ kòꜜkókó
7. ______________ kòꜜkóꜜkó
8. ______________ kúꜜlúlù
9. ______________ fúlúꜜfú
10. ______________ pùlìgì
11. ______________ tàꜜtátá
12. ______________ tàꜜtátà
13. ______________ tátátá
14. ______________ tátáꜜtá
15. ______________ táꜜtáta
16. ______________ kakáꜜtà
17. ______________ tákàꜜtá
18. ______________ málálá
19. ______________ gáꜜlíꜜgá
20. ______________ púꜜlúlúꜜlú

23. High, Low, Rising, Falling

1. ______________ bábà
2. ______________ bábâ
3. ______________ bábá
4. ______________ bàbá
5. ______________ bàbǎ
6. ______________ bàbâ
7. ______________ bâbà
8. ______________ bábà
9. ______________ bǎbá
10. ______________ bǎbá
11. ______________ tátátâ
12. ______________ tátâtà
13. ______________ tàtàtà
14. ______________ tàtàtǎ
15. ______________ tǎtátá
16. ______________ tàtǎá
17. ______________ táàtá
18. ______________ tàtàá
19. ______________ tátàà
20. ______________ tàátàá